

AN INTRODUCTION TO
ENGLISH HISTORY

by
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With
17 SKETCH MAPS AND 44 ILLUSTRATIONS

VOLUME TWO

1763

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PREFACE

THOUGH this is a work on English history attention has not been confined to England. The position of this country in the world and its relations with other states have been constantly kept in mind, and movements which transcended national limits have been noticed.

The amount of material available is, of course, very great, and only a small part of it can be used. The task of selection has been undertaken with care, and social, economic, and religious, as well as political and military, factors have been taken into account.

The book is not intended for pupils who are immediately preparing for examination, and for that reason summaries have not been included. Naturally, many girls and boys who make their first acquaintance with English history through this book and its companion volumes may at a later stage in their education prepare to have their knowledge tested by examiners; their needs at that stage may be catered for in the author's other books already issued.

The author has aimed at simplicity of style, so that the book may be read easily by pupils whose education is not yet far advanced. Nevertheless, it has sometimes been impossible to avoid the use of technical and other terms with which the young reader cannot be expected to be familiar. Such terms have been explained as simply as possible in the text whenever this is feasible, and a full Glossary has been provided. The Glossary gives not only the usual explanations of unfamiliar terms, but also, under such headings as "century" and "dates," explanations of certain difficulties with which young pupils are constantly faced.

The list of Famous Men and Women is intended for purposes of reference, and pupils should be encouraged to consult it constantly. It is hoped that the list, if used in this way, will be of

value in reviving and refreshing knowledge gained in earlier lessons.

The illustrations have not been selected merely in order to make the book "look pretty." They have been chosen because they *illustrate* various points in the text. All teachers know that a verbal description, however exact, often needs to be supplemented pictorially if the young reader is to gain a clear impression of the matter under consideration. The diagrams in the book are reproductions of blackboard sketches used by the author during many years of teaching.

Simple sketch-maps have been provided. If a map is overloaded with names the young student becomes bewildered, and the map is of little use to him. In each map only so much information has been included as is required to illustrate the text, together with a few additional names that may be required by the teacher in the course of his lesson.

Some simple time-charts have been included, and a few test questions have been printed at the end of each chapter. A further selection of questions, some of them (though not all) of slightly greater difficulty, has been given at the end of the book.

The author has tried to impress upon the minds of those who use this book the importance of the subject, and he hopes that the effect upon them of reading this and the companion volumes will be pride in the achievements and confidence in the future of the nation to which they belong.

G. W. S.

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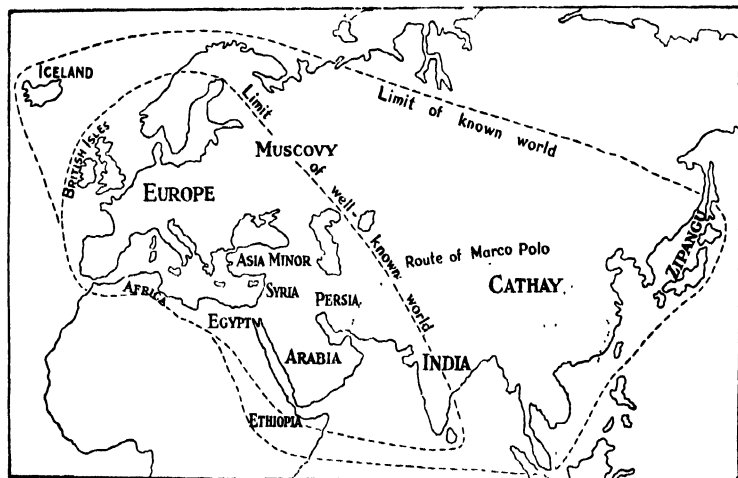
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CHAPTER I

GREAT DISCOVERIES

The World in the Middle Ages. In the Middle Ages men knew very little about the earth on which they lived. Many people believed it to be flat, like the top of a round table, with an endless river, called the Ocean, flowing round it, and they had no



THE WORLD AS KNOWN IN THE MIDDLE AGES

idea how large it was. They even thought that any one who crossed to the farther side of the Ocean might fall over the edge. It was also thought that far away to the south the heat of the sun was so great as to make the sea-water boil and to turn people black.

Not everybody believed these things. Even in Ancient times some learned men had said that the world might be a globe. In the Middle Ages this idea was held by many thoughtful people, but they did not realise how large the world was. They believed

that a ship sailing westward from Europe would reach Asia in a few days.

The only parts of the world that were well known in the Middle Ages were Europe and the parts of Asia and Africa that were near the Mediterranean Sea. India was known, as the merchants of Venice traded with it by way of Egypt and the Red Sea. Cathay (China) and Zipangu (Japan) were visited by Marco Polo, a native of Venice, in the thirteenth century. He lived in the Far East for many years, and on his return he wrote a book about his travels and what he had seen, though many people did not believe him. The greater part of Africa and the whole of Australia, New Zealand, and America were unknown, and so were the great oceans.

Some hundreds of years before the time of Columbus the Vikings of Norway had found their way to Iceland, Greenland, and the coast of North America, where they made a settlement known as Vinland. But it would hardly be right to say that they discovered America; they did not know that their little settlement was on a continent much larger than Europe, and in time it was forgotten.

In the Middle Ages ships were small, and they did not sail very far from the land. Until the mariner's compass was invented it was not safe for sailors to go on long voyages, lasting many days, or even weeks, across wide seas. In fine weather the captain of a ship might keep on his way by watching the sun or the stars, but when the sky was cloudy he would not know whether he was on his course or not. It is not surprising, therefore, that nobody tried to cross the ocean until the close of the Middle Ages.

Trade in the Middle Ages. Much of the world's trade in the Middle Ages was carried on in the Mediterranean, where ships were never very far from land. On the shores of the Mediterranean were many great ports, one of the most important of which was Venice, a city of merchant princes who traded with India. Their chief route to the East was by way of Egypt and the Red Sea. They paid the ruler of Egypt for the right to pass

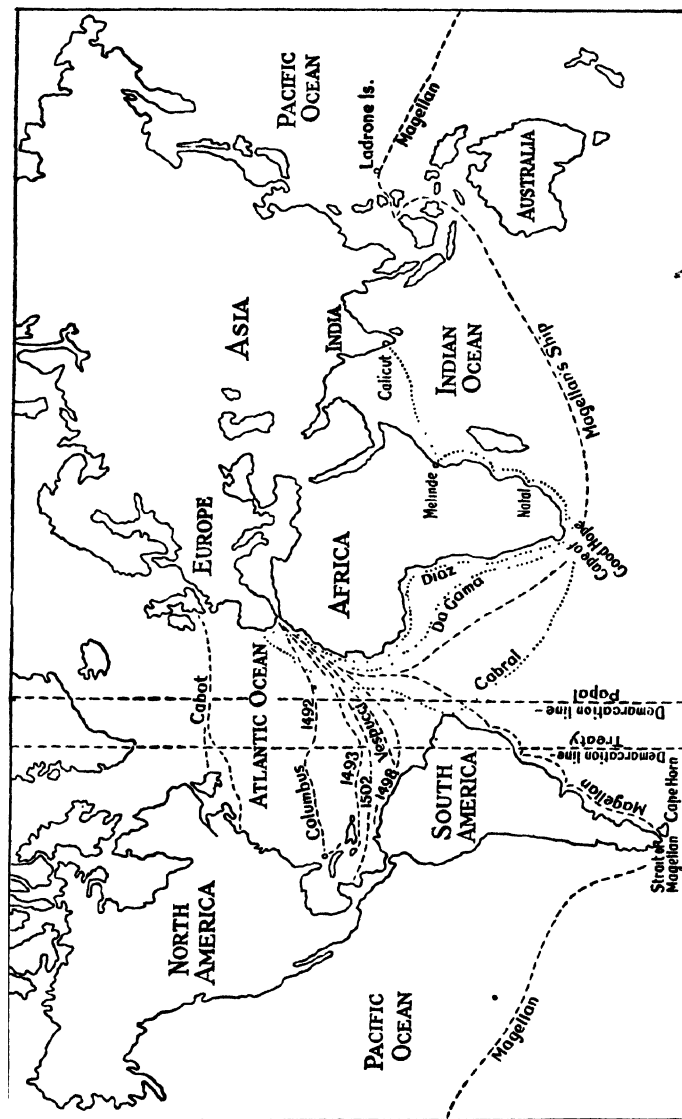
through his land, and in return he refused to let the merchants of other countries use this route. The Venetians thus held a monopoly of Indian trade; they charged very high prices for Indian goods, and grew very rich. Indian silks and spices (pepper, nutmegs, cloves, and cinnamon) were wanted in Europe. Rich people dressed in silk, and both rich and poor used the spices of the East with their food. (There was not enough food for cattle and sheep throughout the winter. Every year, in the autumn, some of the animals were killed. The joints of meat were salted to preserve them during the winter, and when they were eaten spices were sprinkled on them to improve the taste.)

People did not like having to pay the high prices charged by Venetian merchants. They could not get Indian goods at all except from the Venetians, since only the Venetians could reach India. But if another way to the East could be found the merchants of other countries would use it, and the spices of the East might be offered for sale at much lower prices.

New Routes to the East. Two other ways to the East were considered. Some people thought it might be possible to reach India by sailing to the west. Of course, this could not happen unless the earth was a globe, and, so far, nobody had proved that it was a globe. A voyage to the west would be a voyage into the unknown, full of danger, and perhaps useless. Nobody could tell how far a ship must sail before it reached Asia, nobody could be sure that it would reach Asia at all, and certainly nobody knew that the way was barred by a great continent (America).

Other people thought it would be better to go southward to see if it were possible to reach India by sailing round Africa. This, also, would be a voyage into the unknown, but it would not be so dangerous as that across the Atlantic, since the ship could follow the African coast. And if the old tale should be true, and the water of the sea should become too hot, the ship could turn back.

The Portuguese and the Cape Route. In the fifteenth century Portuguese sailors made many voyages southward and explored



EXPLORATION AT THE END OF THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY.

the west coast of Africa. Each captain went a little farther to the south than those before him, and at length, in 1486, Bartholomew Diaz reached the most southerly point of Africa and sailed round it. He named the point Stormy Cape, and returned to Portugal, but the King of that country ordered that it should be called the Cape of Good Hope. (Perhaps he thought it would be unlucky to give the Cape a bad name.)

In 1497 Vasco da Gama, another Portuguese captain, sailed round the Cape with a fleet of four merchant ships. He spent Christmas ashore, in the region now called Natal. (Christmas is the natal day, or birthday, of Christ.) Da Gama reached Calicut, on the coast of India, in 1498. The problem was solved. A new route to India had been found.

The Indians were not very willing to trade with Da Gama, but at length he obtained cargoes for his ships and returned home. The Portuguese were delighted at his success, and a large fleet of trading vessels set out for the East under Cabral in 1501. It was driven out of its course by storm, and touched land in South America, which afterwards became the Portuguese colony of Brazil. When he reached India Cabral had to threaten and even to fight the Indians before they would trade with him. He returned to Portugal with his ships laden with Indian goods, and year after year Portuguese merchants undertook further voyages.

Small Portuguese settlements were made at various places on the south coast of Asia. The spices and other goods of the East were stored in these places until the ships of Portugal arrived from time to time to collect them and take them to Europe.

Though the Cape route to India seemed to be open to the ships of all nations, it was used only by the Portuguese for the next hundred years. It was not until near the end of the sixteenth century that Dutch and English sailors began to make use of this route to the East.

The Spanish and the Western Route. Christopher Columbus was not a Spaniard, but a Genoese sailor who was eager to try to reach Asia by sailing to the west. He was not a rich man, and he



“
The SANTA MARIA
”

*Flagship of the squadron of three vessels commanded by
CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS during his voyage
of 1492 which led to the discovery of AMERICA.*

could not afford to build ships and pay sailors for such a voyage. For many years he went from one country to another, trying to find a king or a great noble who would give him ships and men for a voyage to the west. In 1492 Isabella, Queen of Castile, fitted out three ships, the largest of which was of less than one hundred tons, and placed Columbus in command of them, promising him that he should be governor of any lands that he discovered. He sailed from Palos in August 1492. The voyage across the Atlantic was much longer than Columbus and his men had expected. They became alarmed, and every day Columbus pretended that the day's run was less than he knew it to be. At length the crew demanded that he should go no farther, and he agreed that if land was not reached in another three days he would turn his ship round and return to Spain. On the third day land was sighted; it was one of the islands of the Bahamas. Columbus went on and discovered Cuba and Hispaniola (or Haiti). He thought that he had reached some of the islands which lie to the south-east of Asia, and which were known as the Indies; he naturally called his discoveries "the Indies," and the natives "Indians," and when in years to come it was found that these islands were not the Indies of Asia they came to be known as the West Indies. On his return to Europe he took with him a few of the natives and some of the fruits which grew on the islands which he had visited.

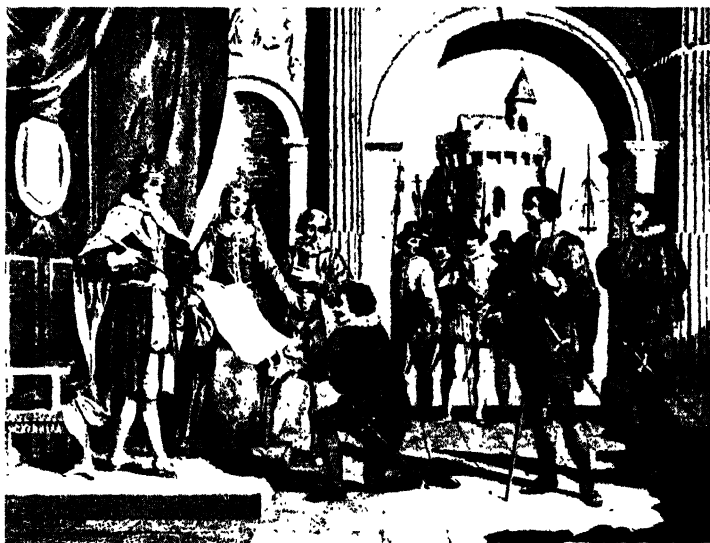
Columbus was received by Ferdinand and Isabella with great honour. (Ferdinand, King of Aragon, was the husband of Isabella, Queen of Castile.) The Spanish King and Queen were delighted to learn of his discoveries. In 1493 he made a second voyage, and began a Spanish settlement on Hispaniola. He then went on and reached the island of Jamaica.

On his third voyage, in 1498, Columbus went a little farther south; perhaps he hoped to pass the islands and go on to the mainland of India, which he thought could not be much farther away. He touched the north coast of South America at what is now called Venezuela. He then visited his colony on Hispaniola, and while he was there a new governor sent out by Ferdinand and Isabella arrested him and sent him back to Spain in chains.

8 AN INTRODUCTION TO ENGLISH HISTORY

He was set free when he reached Spain, but he was not restored to his place as governor.

Columbus made a fourth voyage in 1502, still meaning to push on past what he had already found and to complete the journey to India. He came to the coast of Central America and sailed



Edward H. Gooch

THE RETURN OF COLUMBUS

along it for some distance, but he had to give up and return to Europe. He died in 1506, still convinced that he had reached south-east Asia. Many Spaniards crossed the Atlantic, discovered other islands, and explored other parts of the American coast; some of them did not think that their discoveries were part of Asia, but several years passed before they could be quite certain.

A sea captain named Amerigo Vespucci explored and mapped the coast of Central America and the north coast of South America in 1499 and 1500. When he returned to Europe he

wrote a book which he called *The New World*. Many people read this book, and the travels of Amerigo Vespucci became better known than those of Columbus. People thought that he had discovered the New World, and it was named after him. (Of course, a more fitting name for the new continent would have been Columbia.)

A Spaniard named Balboa landed on the Isthmus of Panama, and crossed it in 1513. He saw the Pacific and believed it to be a large inland sea in the interior of Asia. A few years later Cortes, with only a few hundred men, conquered Mexico and overcame its native inhabitants, the Aztecs. Still later, the Spaniards built ships on the Pacific side of the Isthmus of Panama, and Pizarro sailed south and conquered the Incas of Peru. But no sea-way from the Atlantic to the Pacific was found.

Magellan. By 1517 the Portuguese, in the East, had reached Canton, on the coast of China, but they had not met any Spaniards. The Spanish in all their discoveries had not met any Portuguese. This seemed to prove that Spanish and Portuguese were exploring different parts of the world. And so Ferdinand Magellan, a Portuguese in the service of Spain, resolved to try to finish the work which Columbus had begun—by getting round America and sailing on till he reached Asia.

In 1519 Magellan sailed southward in the Atlantic with five ships and nearly three hundred men till he reached the strait which is named after him. He passed through this strait into the Pacific, which he crossed, at length arriving at the Philippine Islands. In a fight with natives in the Ladrone Islands Magellan was killed, but one of his ships went round the Cape of Good Hope and reached Spain in 1522, having sailed round the world. (Only thirty of Magellan's men got back to Spain.) The voyage had proved many things—that the world really was a globe, that it was very much larger than people had thought it to be, that the Spanish discoveries were a new continent and not part of Asia, and that it was possible to reach India by the western route, though this route was so long as to be quite useless for trade.

Results of the Discoveries. For many reasons these discoveries were very important. A way to India by the Cape of Good Hope had been found, a way that was to be the chief route to the East until the opening of the Suez Canal. A new world had been found, which in time was to equal the old world in wealth and importance. Much of the world's trade in modern times, whether with America or India, has been carried upon the Atlantic, and not the Mediterranean. The countries which were near the Atlantic were well placed for trade with America and India, so that the most important countries of Europe in Modern times have been Spain, France, and England.

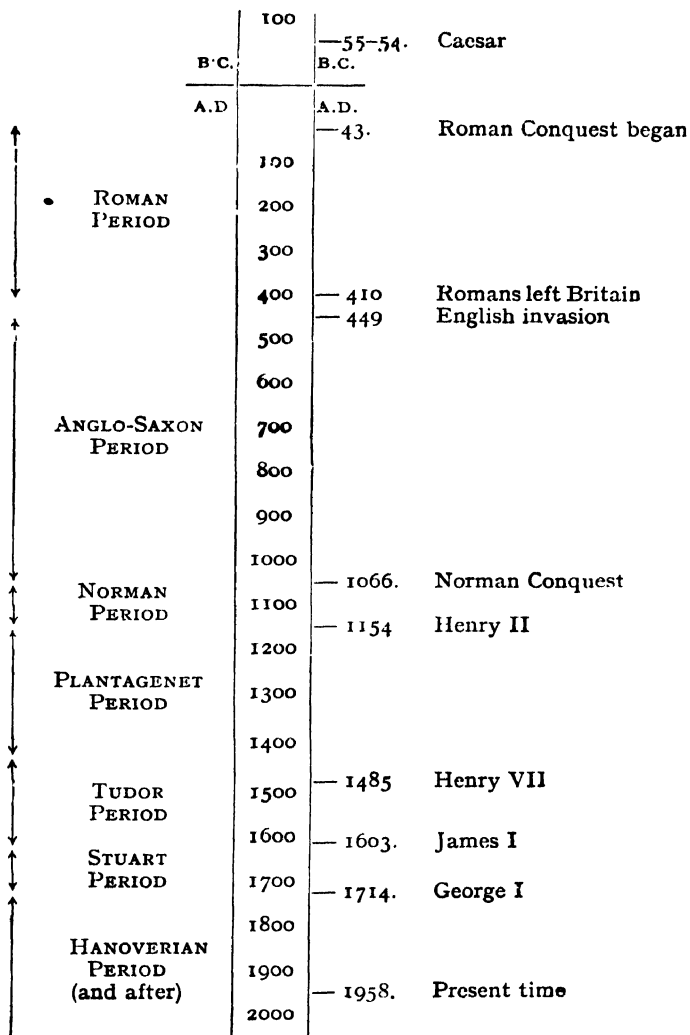
People now knew more about the world upon which they lived, and they wanted to know still more. Ever since the time of the great Spanish and Portuguese discoveries men have been exploring in all directions, until now nearly the whole of the surface of the earth has been visited and mapped, and even the North and South Poles have been reached.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. What parts of the world were known in the Middle Ages?
2. Describe the four voyages of Columbus, and state what was discovered on each of them.
3. Write three or four lines about each of the following: Diaz, Balboa, Cortes, Cabral.
4. Describe the voyage of Magellan, and state why he should be honoured as much as Columbus.
5. What were the chief results of the discoveries made in the fifteenth century and the early part of the sixteenth century?

TIME CHART

ENGLISH HISTORY



CHAPTER 2

THE TUDORS

Henry VII	1485-1509
Henry VIII	1509-47
Edward VI	1547-53
Mary I	1553-58
Elizabeth	1558-1603

The Tudors. Richard III, the last of the Plantagenet kings of England, was defeated and slain in the Battle of Bosworth, in 1485. Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, who won the battle, became King, and he and his son and his grandchildren ruled England for more than a century. The Tudor line of kings and queens was the most powerful that ever ruled in England. Earlier kings were powerful; yet they had always to keep watch on earls and barons who were sometimes inclined to rebel against them. But many nobles were killed in the Wars of the Roses, and the lords of Tudor times were not so great a danger to the kings. The kings who came after the Tudor period found that Parliament was becoming powerful; in time it became the most important body in the country, even more important than the king. But in Tudor times Parliament was not so strong as it afterwards became; it met only now and then, when called by the King or Queen, and it nearly always did just what the King or Queen wanted it to do.

The Tudors were despotic kings and queens, that is, they ruled as they liked. They sometimes asked the advice of other people, but they did not always follow the advice they received. They made up their own minds, and did as they wished. Yet they were popular; they were liked by the people. In other countries despotic kings were, as a rule, not popular; but they had large armies, and if a rebellion broke out they could easily put it down. But the Tudors did not keep a large army; the only regular soldiers in the country were the King's bodyguard.

If war or a rebellion occurred men left their work in order to fight, and when the fighting was over they returned home. It might be thought that in the Tudor period it would have been easy to raise a revolt which the King would find it hard to put down, because he had so few trained soldiers ready. In fact, there were rebellions in the Tudor period, but the King was never in danger of losing his throne, since men were always ready to rally to his standard when they were needed.

Why were the Tudors so popular? One reason is that the country was peaceful and prosperous under their rule, far more so than it had been under earlier kings. Henry VII was a Lancastrian, but he married a Yorkist princess, Elizabeth, the daughter of Edward IV, and their son, Henry VIII, was descended from both the rival families which had fought in the Wars of the Roses. There was now no reason for Yorkists and Lancastrians to make war against each other, since the King on the throne was connected with both parties.

The Tudors were popular for another reason. The English people felt that such a king as Henry VIII and such a queen as Elizabeth could be trusted to rule England for the benefit of the nation. Tudor kings and queens had their faults. They were hasty and harsh, and sometimes ill-tempered. Yet Englishmen felt that their rulers had their interests at heart, that they were truly English, and that England was safe in their care.

Henry VII. After Henry VII had gained the throne his chief concern was to keep it. His greatest danger was from the Yorkists, who would gladly have overthrown him if they could. (It was not until after Henry VIII had become King that Yorkist feeling died away.) Henry VII put the Earl of Warwick, a prince of the House of York, in the Tower, so that he should not plot to obtain the throne. A year or two after Henry became King a boy named Lambert Simnel was put forward in Dublin by the Yorkists as being the Earl of Warwick. (The King had the real Earl taken out of the Tower and shown to the people of London.) A rebel army was raised on behalf of Simnel, but Henry defeated it at Stoke and captured him. The boy was

not punished in any way, for he was not the real plotter against the King. He became one of the King's servants; he was made a turnspit in the kitchen of the palace, and when he was older he became one of the King's falconers. Some years later Henry entertained at dinner some Irish lords who had supported Simnel, and who had afterwards been pardoned. Simnel was ordered to wait at table. No doubt the King was amused to see that his guests felt very uncomfortable!

Some years later a youth named Perkin Warbeck claimed to be the brother of Edward V. (Edward V and his brother were believed to have been murdered in the Tower by order of their uncle, Richard III; Warbeck said that he was the brother, and that he had escaped.) For some years Warbeck gave trouble to the King, but at length he was captured and put in the Tower. Two years later both he and the Earl of Warwick were put to death; no doubt the King was glad to get rid of two men who had been such a nuisance to him.

There were now not so many nobles in England as before the Wars of the Roses, and the King made sure that they should not be too strong. Until this time many great lords kept their own private armies of retainers. Retainers were not paid by their lord, but they were proud to wear his badge and fight for him, and they were sure that he would protect them. Every man who lived on the lands of a great lord was his retainer. The King could not feel safe from the nobles while these private armies existed, and he asked Parliament to make a law forbidding nobles to keep retainers. Some of the nobles thought that Henry did not mean to enforce this law, but he set up a court known as the Star Chamber in which nobles who kept retainers were fined very heavily. It is said that the King once paid a visit to the Earl of Oxford, who received him with a guard of his retainers. He did this to show honour to the King; nevertheless, he was fined £10,000 for breaking the law.

During his reign Henry VII saved a large amount of money. He spent as little as possible in ruling the country, and he received the heavy fines which had to be paid by nobles who were found to be keeping retainers. Rich people were expected to make

gifts to the King. These gifts were called benevolences, because it was pretended that they were given out of a feeling of benevolence, or good will, towards the King. It is said that Cardinal Morton, Archbishop of Canterbury and Lord Chancellor, told the officers who were sent to obtain benevolences for the King that "if a man lived in great state, with many servants, he must be rich, and could afford a gift to the King; if he lived meanly, with few servants, he must be saving money, and could spare an offering to the King." In the course of his reign Henry VII saved a sum of money which would be worth many millions of pounds to-day. It is sometimes thought that he was a miser, and he certainly seems to have been rather mean; yet he built St. George's Chapel, Windsor, and a fine chapel at the east end of Westminster Abbey, and these must have cost him large sums of money. The real reason for his gathering treasure was that he never felt quite safe on the throne. If at some time a plot or a rebellion should succeed, he might have to leave England in a hurry. If ever this should happen, he meant to use his wealth in raising an army of mercenary soldiers in Europe in order to recover his throne.

Henry VIII. Henry VIII was only eighteen years old when he became King. He was the second son of Henry VII, and while his brother Arthur lived he was Duke of York. It was intended that he should be a priest and that in time he should become Archbishop of York. There is something amusing in the idea that the much-married Henry was expected to follow a life in which he could not marry at all, for priests did not marry.

Henry was tall, handsome, and strong, and was well educated; he spoke several languages, including Italian, French, and Latin; he danced well and played musical instruments; and he was fond of hunting and could use both bow and lance. He wanted to become famous as a great soldier, and he took part in some of the wars which were going on in Europe. In this way, during the first few years of his reign, he spent the money his father had collected. At this time the Holy Roman Emperor, Charles V (who was also King of Spain), and the King of France, Francis I,

were often at war with each other. They both wanted the help of Henry VIII, and he fought sometimes on one side and sometimes on the other.



HENRY VIII

Henry VIII seems to be remembered to-day chiefly as the king who had six wives. But this is not a very important matter, and Henry deserves to be regarded as a great king for other reasons

than this. He knew that sea-power was important to an island-kingdom, and he built many ships for the Royal Navy. Harbours were improved and docks were built. The King encouraged the fishing industry, since the men who went to sea in fishing vessels became skilled sailors who could man the ships of the navy. It was Henry VIII who founded Trinity House; this was a society (or gild) of seamen which supplied pilots in the Thames and in other ports. Trinity House was afterwards given the duty of placing buoys and beacons and other marks round the coast in order to safeguard shipping. Henry wished to increase the trade of the country, and he encouraged merchants to send their ships on long voyages to distant parts of the world.

In another way Henry VIII was one of our most famous kings. He did away with the power of the Pope over the Church of England, and made himself Head of the Church instead of the Pope. He abolished the monasteries, some of which had existed for hundreds of years. It is sometimes thought that he became a Protestant and made England a Protestant country, but he did not. He had always been a Catholic, and though he destroyed monasteries and put an end to papal power in England he did not change his faith.

In the earlier part of his reign, before his quarrel with the Pope, Henry wrote a book against Luther, the German reformer, which won for him from the Pope the title of "Defender of the Faith." This title has been held by English kings and queens ever since, and the letters "F.D." or "Fid. Def." still appear on the coins of this country.

In the latter part of his reign Henry VIII became a brutal tyrant. His health was bad, and he suffered a great deal. He was ill-tempered, and men who displeased him were sent to the Tower, and perhaps to the block, on charges of treason. Yet, in spite of all his faults, and they were many and great, he never entirely lost the love of his people. Most of the things he did were to their liking (though there was a rebellion when the monasteries were dissolved), and no doubt they thought of "Bluff King Hal" as a great king.

Edward VI. When he died Henry VIII left three children, Edward, Mary, and Elizabeth, and each of them in turn came to the throne. Edward VI succeeded his father in 1547. He was a boy of nine when he became King, and he died in 1553, before he was sixteen years old. During the first part of his short reign the country was ruled by his uncle, the Duke of Somerset, as Protector. Somerset was not a very able ruler, and he became unpopular. He resigned the office of Protector, and not long afterwards he was beheaded for treason. For the remainder of the reign the country was ruled by the Earl of Warwick, who took the title of Duke of Northumberland.

Both Somerset and Warwick tried to change the religion of the country. As stated above, England under Henry VIII had remained Catholic in religion, with the King instead of the Pope as Head of the Church. Somerset was a Protestant, and he made many changes in religion. Church services were to be in the English language instead of in Latin, and the clergy were allowed to marry. (In the Middle Ages the clergy might not marry, and this is still the rule in the Roman Catholic Church.) These changes were not liked by the people; yet Warwick, who followed Somerset, made further changes, and soon he was disliked even more than Somerset had been.

Lady Jane Grey. The young King was ill, and Warwick (or Northumberland, as he had become by this time) knew that if Edward died his sister Mary would come to the throne. Northumberland would be dismissed at once, for Mary was a Catholic, and would not let such an out-and-out Protestant as Northumberland have any share in ruling the country. Northumberland therefore plotted to put his daughter-in-law, Lady Jane Grey, on the throne instead of Mary. If he could do this he thought he would still be the real ruler of the country. Edward died, and Northumberland proclaimed Jane as Queen in London. The Londoners listened to the proclamation in silence; they did not cheer, and an apprentice boy called out: "The Lady Mary hath the better title."

Mary was in Norfolk at the time of her brother's death, and

thousands of the men of Norfolk and Suffolk gathered round her and marched with her towards London. Northumberland left London to arrest her, if he could; actually, he was arrested by Mary's men and sent to the Tower, whither Lady Jane Grey also was sent. Both Northumberland and Lady Jane were beheaded a few months later.

It is not hard to see why the people wanted Mary as Queen rather than Jane. Mary was the daughter of Henry VIII and was the rightful Queen, whereas Jane was not. Apart from this, Jane was a Protestant and Mary was a Catholic, and there is no doubt that at this time most of the English people preferred the Catholic faith; they did not like the changes in religion which had been made by Somerset and Northumberland. They hoped that Mary would undo what had been done in her brother's reign, and restore English religion to what it had been at the end of Henry VIII's reign—the Catholic religion with the King (or Queen) of England, and not the Pope, as the Head of the Church.

Mary I. Mary certainly undid the work of Somerset and Northumberland; priests were not to marry, and the mass in Latin became again the chief service of the Church. The Queen was Head of the Church, as her father had been. If she had been content with this her reign might have been happy. But she wanted to do more; she wanted to undo her father's work as well. She was not only a Catholic, but a Roman Catholic, and she wanted the Pope to be Head of the Church of England again. For this she had to get the consent of Parliament, and for a time Parliament would not agree. At length it did so, and the English Church came under the Pope again.

If Mary wished to remain popular with her subjects it was a mistake for her to restore the Pope's power in England. She made another mistake in her marriage with Philip II, King of Spain. She may have been in love with him; he was not in love with her. English people disliked the marriage, because Spain was very powerful, and was mistress of many lands in Europe and America. It was feared that England might become a province of the Spanish Empire, especially if Philip and Mary

had a son who might become King of Spain and King of England. This did not happen; Philip and Mary had no children. But English people saw the danger, and they were against the marriage.

Mary's third mistake was to burn Protestants. When she became Queen most of the people of England were Catholics at heart, but there were some Protestants. In the last three years of her reign she ordered that Protestants should be burnt at the stake as heretics. The effect of these terrible events was to turn a great many people away from the Catholic religion; they felt that men and women who were willing to suffer such an awful death for the sake of their religion must be sincere, and that their religion must be a very good one. Probably every death by burning turned hundreds of people to Protestantism. At the end of Mary's reign there were many more Protestants in England than at the beginning.

Yet another mistake was made by Mary when she made war on France. Philip, her husband, was already at war with France, and England joined in the war on the side of Spain. The chief event of the war was the loss of Calais, which the English had held for more than two hundred years. Mary was grieved at this. Her health failed, and she died not long after. Before her death she said that the word "Calais" would be found engraved on her heart.

Mary was a most unhappy woman. She had lost the love of her people; she had never gained the love of her husband; she had lost the only English possession on the continent of Europe; she had hoped to stamp out Protestantism in England; yet at the end of her reign there were far more English Protestants than ever before. She deserved to be pitied as well as blamed; yet she has gone down to history as "Bloody Mary."

Elizabeth. Mary was succeeded by her half-sister, Elizabeth, the last and the greatest of the Tudors. Her reign, of forty-five years, was the longest of the Tudor period. During her reign she settled the question of English religion in a way which satisfied most, though not all, of her subjects. She stopped the

burnings at once. She ended the power of the Pope in England, and put herself at the head of the Church, as her father had done. The services of the Church were again carried on in the English



ELIZABETH

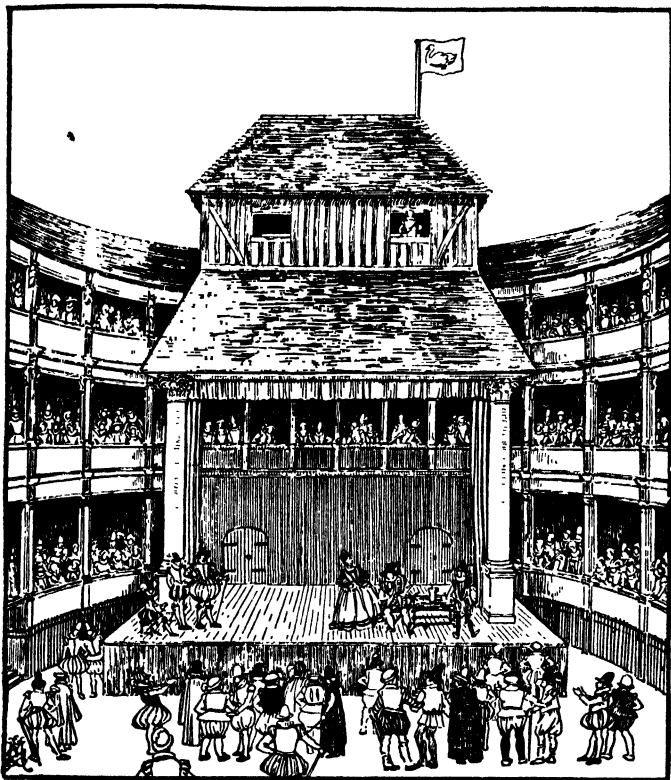
language. In making her arrangements Elizabeth tried to satisfy both Catholics and Protestants as far as possible. She did not burn either Catholics or Protestants, and in the earlier part of the reign most of the people seemed to agree with the Church as she had settled it. But in 1570 the Pope excommunicated

Elizabeth, and after this many Roman Catholics plotted against the Queen in order to put her cousin Mary Stuart on the throne in her place. All the plots were found out, and the plotters were put to death, but it must be remembered that they suffered for their treason, and not for their religion.

At the beginning of Elizabeth's reign there was some danger that England might become part of the empire of Spain. For a time England and Spain were not unfriendly, and they might have become very closely connected if Elizabeth had married Philip, as he proposed. But Spain was a Roman Catholic country, ready at all times to fight to restore the power of the Pope wherever it had been lost; England was by this time looked upon as a Protestant country, and Elizabeth was even regarded as the champion of Protestantism. A war between England and Spain was bound to come, and if it came too soon Spain was very likely to win. For a long time Spain was much more powerful than England, but during the reign of Elizabeth England was growing stronger. Elizabeth tried to keep the peace and put off the war as long as possible, and when at last the Spanish Armada sailed to conquer England it was completely defeated. The country was saved, and Englishmen felt that their victory was due not only to the brave men who had fought and destroyed the Spanish fleet but also to the Queen, who had managed to put off the war till England was ready for it.

During the reign of Elizabeth English seamen sailed to all parts of the world. They opened up trade with distant countries; they attacked Spanish ships and settlements; they discovered new lands; and they tried to found colonies, though in this they were not successful. The ships in which they sailed were very small; the crews were crowded together on board; disease often broke out. Some of the ships that set out were never heard of again, and those that returned often had to report that many of their men had died in fighting or from disease. To go on one of these voyages was a risky thing—but Elizabethan sailors were brave men. Their attacks on Spanish ships and towns weakened Spain, and it was they who defeated the Spanish Armada and saved England.

Elizabeth's reign was great in yet another way. It was a time of great poets, great dramatists, and great historians. Holinshed wrote a *Historie of England*, and John Stow wrote a full account



AN ELIZABETHAN THEATRE

From *Everyday Things in England*, by Marjorie and C. H. B. Quennell

of the City of London. Richard Hakluyt described the voyages made by English seamen in the time of Elizabeth. Many of the courtiers of Elizabeth wrote sonnets and other poems; Sir Philip Sidney's sonnets in *Astrophel and Stella* are well known. *The*

Faerie Queene, a long poem in honour of the Queen, was written by Edmund Spenser. Several of the Elizabethan writers were dramatists. Christopher Marlowe, who was killed in



Edward H. Gooch

THE DEATH OF QUEEN ELIZABETH

a quarrel in an inn before he was thirty years old, wrote several plays. Ben Jonson was another famous playwright of Elizabeth's reign and that of James I. The greatest of the Elizabethan dramatists was, of course, William Shakespeare, many of whose plays, like those of Jonson, appeared towards the end of Elizabeth's reign; others were written after her death. Shakespeare

is world-famous for his plays; if he had never written a play he would still have been a poet of high rank on account of his sonnets.

Elizabeth was in some ways much like her father, Henry VIII. She had the same fierce temper, and men whom she disliked were sent to the Tower (though not often to the block) as they might have been by Henry. Like her father she was fond of fine shows, and like him she feared nothing and nobody. In another way she was unlike him, for he could always make up his mind, and would do at once what he wanted to do; Elizabeth often hesitated, she put things off, she would often change her mind. She was sometimes mean; she would not even let the English fleet have enough gunpowder when it sailed out to fight the Armada. If the English ships had had more gunpowder at the Battle of Gravelines the whole Armada might have been sunk. She was very vain; she expected the men of her court to be in love with her, and a sure way to win her favour was to write love-poems about her. At the time of her death she is said to have had a thousand dresses. In that respect she was certainly not mean.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. In what ways did Henry VII make himself safe on the throne?
2. Give three or four reasons why Henry VIII should be regarded as a great king.
3. Write a short account of Lady Jane Grey.
4. What mistakes were made by Queen Mary?
5. Give three or four reasons why Elizabeth should be regarded as a great queen.

CHAPTER 3

WOLSEY

Early Life. Wolsey was born at Ipswich between 1471 and 1475 (the exact date is uncertain). His father was a butcher, and also a sheep-farmer, who grazed hundreds of sheep on the flat lands of Suffolk. Thomas was well educated, and went to Oxford, where he took the degree of Bachelor of Arts at the age of fifteen, being known as the Boy Bachelor.

Wolsey was determined to get on in life, and to rise to a high position. The only way to rise that was open to a man not of high birth was the Church. Therefore Wolsey became a priest. The Bishop of Winchester brought him to the court of Henry VII, who one day ordered him to take an important letter to the Emperor, who was in Flanders. Four days later Henry met Wolsey, and asked him why he had not yet set out for Flanders. Wolsey's reply was to hand the Emperor's answer to the King! No wonder he rose in the royal favour!

His rise to power. When Henry VIII became King he resolved to make use of Wolsey. In 1513 an English army was fighting against the French in Flanders, and met with some success. Wolsey was placed in charge of the commissariat—the feeding of the troops. Men who are well fed fight well, and Wolsey did his work so well that the success of the English army was to some extent due to him. Henry rewarded him by making him Bishop of Lincoln.

He now rose rapidly in the King's favour, and within the next two years became Archbishop of York, Lord Chancellor, a cardinal, and papal legate. As papal legate he represented the Pope in England, and so had even greater power in the Church than the Archbishop of Canterbury. As Lord Chancellor he was the most important man in the country except the King himself. During the next few years he obtained four other



WOLSEY IN POWER

Edward H. Gooch

bishoprics; he could not, and did not, do the work of these bishoprics, but he received their incomes, so that he was very rich. He built for himself two great palaces, both on the banks of the Thames. York House was at Westminster, nearly opposite Lambeth Palace, where the Archbishop of Canterbury lived; Hampton Court was farther up the river.

His hope of becoming Pope. It might be thought that Wolsey would now be satisfied. He was not. He could rise no higher in England, for the only man above the Lord Chancellor was the King. But he could rise higher in the Church; he might become Pope. He hoped that he as Pope at Rome and Henry as the most powerful king in Europe would together rule the world. But how could this come about? In order to gain the position of Pope Wolsey became friendly with the Emperor Charles V.

Charles V was Holy Roman Emperor and King of Spain, and Francis I was King of France. They were bitter enemies, and were usually at war with each other. But they were so evenly matched that both of them wished to obtain the alliance of England. And as Wolsey was the favourite of Henry VIII, who was nearly always ready to follow his advice, the two kings tried to win the support of Wolsey.

When a Pope dies a new Pope is chosen by the cardinals. Many of the cardinals were Italian (and Charles ruled a large part of Italy); many others were Spanish or German. Most of them would probably vote as Charles wished, and Charles promised Wolsey that if England allied with Spain in the war he should be chosen Pope at the next election. England did ally with Charles, who very likely thought that there would be no election of a Pope for a good many years, as the Pope at that time was not an old man. But the Pope died next year, and Wolsey was not elected. He was angry and disappointed, but the Emperor made excuses and repeated his promise. Unfortunately the new Pope died in less than two years, and again Wolsey was passed over. He never had any further chance of becoming Pope.

The Divorce. Wolsey now saw that the Emperor did not intend to keep his promise. The war between Francis and Charles ended for a time in 1525, but it was renewed in 1527, and this time England was on the side of France. By this time Henry was thinking of obtaining a divorce from his first wife, Catherine of Aragon, and Wolsey was in favour of it; perhaps he even proposed it to the King, whom he wanted to marry a French princess. But Henry fell in love with Anne Boleyn, and Wolsey certainly did not want the King to marry this lady. From this time he began to lose the King's favour.

Only the Pope could grant the divorce. As a rule a Pope would be willing to oblige a powerful king in such a matter, but Charles captured Rome in 1527 and the Pope was his prisoner. Charles, of course, was against the divorce, because Catherine was his aunt. The Pope put off dealing with it as long as possible, and at last he ordered two cardinals to try the case in England. The two cardinals were Wolsey and Campeggio; Campeggio was an Italian cardinal who was also Bishop of Salisbury (in England). The arrangement pleased Henry, who thought that these two cardinals, acting for the Pope, would certainly grant the divorce. Campeggio came to England very slowly; he was delayed by illness; he had to rest after his journey; papers which had been left at Rome had to be sent for. Every trick for putting the trial off was used. At last the court was opened at Blackfriars, in London, and the cardinals began to hear the case. And then the Pope recalled it to Rome!

His fall. Henry was really angry at this new delay. Campeggio returned to Rome, and the King's anger fell upon Wolsey. He was dismissed from all his high positions. He gave his two palaces to the King, and Henry restored him to the archbishopric of York. All this was in 1529. The Cardinal went to York and took up his duties as Archbishop; until this time he had never even visited York. But he was not forgiven. He had many enemies at court, where the nobles hated "the butcher's son" who had been above them so long. He was accused of treason, and was arrested and ordered to come to London. He was now

very ill; he reached Leicester Abbey, and there, in 1530, he died. "If I had served my God," he said, "as diligently as I have served my King, he would not have deserted me in my grey hairs."



Edward H. Gooch

WOLSEY AT LEICESTER ABBEY

Wolsey as a Reformer. During his career Wolsey realised that the Church needed reform, and if he had become Pope it is likely that he would have been a reforming Pope. He never thought of becoming a Protestant; he was entirely against the Lutherans. He thought that the evils in the Church were due to the ignorance of the clergy and that if priests had more learning they would be better men. He founded a grammar school at Ipswich and a college at Oxford (the two places of his own education). The college, to be known as Cardinal College, was not finished when Wolsey died, and the King completed it. It is now known as

Christ Church College, and is the largest in the University; its chapel is the cathedral of the Bishop of Oxford.

Yet Wolsey was no true reformer. Had he been in earnest he would have reformed his own life and would have given up the bishoprics whose income he received but whose duties he neglected. One last thing may be said in his favour. There were already a few Protestants in England in his time, and he did not persecute them, though he burnt their books. No heretic was burnt at the stake in England while Wolsey was in power.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. What steps did Wolsey take to get himself chosen Pope? Why did he fail?
2. What are (a) the best things, and (b) the worst things, in Wolsey's career?
3. Why did Wolsey fall from power?

CHAPTER 4

THE REFORMATION

The Church. The Christian Church was founded by Jesus Christ while he lived on earth. At first it consisted of his apostles and disciples, but in course of time the Christian religion spread throughout the Roman Empire, and in the time of the Emperor Constantine it became the religion of the whole Empire. The Bishop of Rome, known as the Pope, was looked upon as Head of the Church, and in every part of the Christian world there were archbishops, bishops, and priests.

Need for Reform. By the close of the Middle Ages many people felt that all was not right with the Church. Some (though by no means all) of the clergy were bad men, and many others were lazy and careless. It seemed that some of the teachings of the Church were not what had been taught by Christ. And, though Christ and his disciples had been poor, the Church was very rich. Many men became priests in order to enjoy a comfortable life with very little work.

As far back as the fourteenth century John Wycliffe, an English priest, was troubled in mind about the state of the Church. He thought that it ought to give up its wealth and become poor; if it did this, men would not become priests merely for the sake of a good living, and the Church would become better than it was. But Wycliffe's ideas were disliked by the clergy of his time, and nothing was done.

Luther. The work of reforming the Church was not begun until the sixteenth century. Martin Luther, a German friar, protested when the Pope sent another friar to sell indulgences in Germany. (People who bought these indulgences were told that their stay after death in purgatory would be shortened.) Luther thought this to be wrong, and he hoped that his protest

would lead to the sale of indulgences being stopped. He was not thinking of leaving the Church, but in 1520 the Pope excommunicated him. He was thus cast out of the Church, and he boldly defied the Pope, whom he called Antichrist. Many Germans agreed with him, and in the next few years most of the people of north Germany had become his followers, and a Lutheran Church was formed.

Calvin. John Calvin, a Frenchman who lived at Geneva, founded there a Church which in many ways was quite different from the Church of Rome. There were no pictures or images in the churches at Geneva as there were in Roman Catholic churches. There were no rich robes for the clergy, no candles on the altar, no incense; everything was as plain as possible, and the service consisted of long prayers, long psalms, and a long sermon. Everybody who lived in Geneva had to attend church, and strict rules were made about their lives. People might not wear clothes of bright colours, they might not dance nor play with dice, and the only singing that was allowed was the singing of psalms.

Calvin welcomed at Geneva men and women who had been forced to fly from their native lands because they were Protestants, as the reformers were now called. At Geneva such people had to become Calvinists, like everybody else in the city, and when they were able to return to their own countries they went as Calvinists. In this way Calvinism spread into many other countries. The Huguenots in France were Calvinists; so were the Dutch, the English Puritans, the Scottish Presbyterians, the Pilgrim Fathers in North America, and the Boers in South Africa. Calvinism thus became the best known kind of Protestantism, while Lutheranism did not extend much beyond Germany.

Though, as has been shown, the Church needed reform the Protestants did not succeed in reforming it. Until the sixteenth century the Church in Western Europe had been one Church, with the Pope at its head. It was united, but after the Reformation it ceased to be united, as other churches were set up apart from the Roman Catholic Church.

The Counter-Reformation. At Rome there was much alarm at what was going on. The Roman Catholic Church was losing thousands of its people; sometimes whole nations broke away from Rome. If this went on long enough more and more people would leave the Church and become Protestants, and the Roman Catholic Church might become very small indeed. Something had to be done to "stop the rot," as they say in cricket.

There were in Rome itself many men, even among the cardinals, who saw that real reform was needed in the Church. The Protestants had left it because of the evil in it, and the first thing to be done was to put it right. This was done in the Counter-Reformation. "Counter" means "against"; the Counter-Reformation was not against reformation, but against the Protestant movement known as the Reformation.

During the sixteenth century there were several Popes who wished to reform the Roman Catholic Church. A great council, the Council of Trent, was called together; it made strict rules in order that priests should be well educated and should lead good lives, and it stated what the Church was to teach. In doing this it hoped that the Church would not suffer any further loss.

The Inquisition. The Church of Rome tried to win back the people it had lost. The Inquisition was used to persuade men to return to the Roman Catholic Church. The Inquisition worked in countries which still followed the Roman Catholic religion; any Protestants who were found in these countries were brought before it. They might be tortured, and if they held out they were burnt at the stake. In some countries, such as Spain and Italy, the Protestants were completely destroyed; in others, such as the Netherlands, the number of Protestants increased. There was no Inquisition in England or in France; in both these countries some Protestants were burnt by order of kings or queens, but more people became Protestants as a result.

The Jesuits. A society of priests, known as the Jesuits, was founded to try to stamp out Protestantism, and win Protestants back to the Church. The Jesuits were very clever people; many

of them lived in Protestant countries (where they did not dress as priests) and converted some of the people. They went overseas and did missionary work in heathen lands, and it was due to them that Indians in North and South America were brought into the Roman Catholic Church. They also went to the Far East and preached Christianity to the Japanese and other races. Many Jesuits suffered death, but others followed them. It may be added that these Jesuit missionaries did very useful work of another kind in exploring the lands they visited.

Wars of Religion. The Jesuits and the Inquisition succeeded, on the whole, in "stopping the rot." The Roman Catholic Church did not suffer other losses. But it did not recover very much of what it had lost. Most of the people and the nations that had left the Church remained outside it. The only other way of recovering them was by war, and several wars of religion took place. Spain fought for the Roman Catholic Church in all these wars. The revolt of the Dutch against Spanish rule was a fight of Protestants against Catholic Spain. The war of Spain against England in the latter part of Elizabeth's reign was a Spanish attempt to bring England back to the Roman Catholic Church. The Thirty Years War in the Holy Roman Empire was a great effort, in which Spain took part, to compel the Protestant parts of the Empire to submit to Rome. Spain failed in all these wars, and to-day the world contains some Catholic and some Protestant countries. Neither form of the Christian religion has been able to destroy the other.

The Reformation in England—Henry VIII. The Reformation in England was different from that in other countries. There were lazy priests and bad priests in England as in other lands, and the Church was far too rich, as Wycliffe had noticed. But in England it was the power of the Pope that was disliked. The Church in England had been part of the Catholic Church ever since the time of St. Augustine, but English kings in early times had much power over it. They ruled it, and they appointed its bishops. When King John became the Pope's vassal the

Pope's power in England increased very much. Henry VIII resolved to end this and make himself Head of the Church instead of the Pope. He did this, but neither he nor his people wanted to change the actual religion of the country. Henry and most of the people of England believed the Catholic faith, and while the King lived there was very little difference in the services of the Church. Very few people became Protestants; no new Church was formed; the old Church was continued, but with the King as its Head instead of the Pope. Monasteries were dissolved, as is mentioned elsewhere, because they were no longer so useful as they had been, and also because the monks still looked to the Pope rather than the King as their Head.

Edward VI. When the boy Edward became King the men who ruled England for him, Somerset, and then Northumberland, were both Protestants at heart, and many changes were made in the Church and its services. Images and pictures and other valuable things were taken from the churches; services were in English instead of in Latin; priests were allowed to marry. These changes were not to the liking of the common people, and revolts took place in which the rebels asked for the old services to be restored. Rebels in Devon and Cornwall declared that the new services were "like a Christmas game," and in one village the priest was forced to put on his robes and say the mass in Latin. These rebellions were put down, but though some of the people were coming over to the Protestant side most of them remained Catholic at heart. That is one reason why they welcomed Mary as Queen and would not have Jane Grey.

Mary I. Mary was Catholic; she not only restored the old forms of service and ordered married priests to leave their wives but she also began the burning of Protestants in order to make the nation entirely Catholic again. In this she failed, and at her death England contained many more Protestants than at the beginning of her reign.

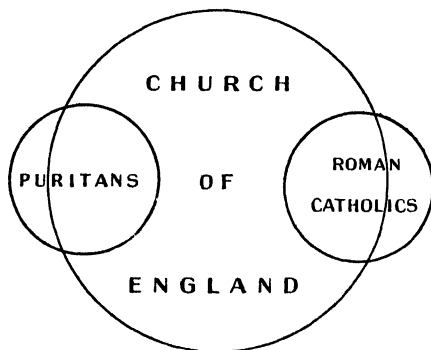
Elizabeth. Elizabeth was a sensible woman, who wanted to

settle this question of religion in England once and for all. She knew that some of her subjects were Catholic and some Protestant, and she tried to arrange things so as to satisfy both parties. She became Head of the Church (though she did not take that title, as the Catholics would not like it). Church services were conducted in English and were drawn up in a way that she hoped would please both parties. Priests were not given permission to marry, but many of them did so, and no notice was taken of them. Nobody was to be burned or tortured or imprisoned for his religion. The one thing that was required of all men was that they should attend church; if they would not they were fined one shilling a month. Neither of the sisters allowed men to choose their own way of worshipping God, but whereas Mary burned Protestants Elizabeth only fined Catholics, and she did not even do that if they attended church services now and then. (But two or three Anabaptists, who came to England from the continent later in the reign of Elizabeth, were put to death by burning.)

In the early part of Elizabeth's reign most of the Catholics attended church, and those who were fined were few in number. In 1570 the Pope excommunicated Elizabeth; he declared that she was no longer Queen of England, and that Englishmen were no longer to obey her. Catholics now had to make up their minds whether they would obey the Queen or the Pope. It became high treason to say that the Queen was a usurper or a heretic, but if Roman Catholics said nothing about this they came to no harm. Nevertheless, as has been mentioned already, some of them entered into plots to kill the Queen and put Mary Stuart on the throne. These plots were all found out, and the plotters were put to death—because they were traitors, and not because they were Catholics.

In the time of Queen Mary some of the English Protestants had fled to Geneva and had become Calvinists. After Elizabeth became Queen they returned to England, where they were known as Puritans. Elizabeth had some trouble with them. They wanted to make the Church in England much more Protestant than it was, but Elizabeth would not agree to this. Some of the

Puritans wanted to break away from the Church and hold their own meetings, but this, too, the Queen would not allow. Unlike the Roman Catholics, the Puritans did not plot against the Queen, for if she had been killed it is certain that Mary Stuart, a Roman Catholic, would have become Queen, and they would then have been worse off than they were under Elizabeth.



RELIGIOUS PARTIES IN THE REIGN OF ELIZABETH

(Many Puritans and many Roman Catholics attended Church; only those who refused to attend might be fined as recusants.)

Persecution. It was stated above that Protestants were persecuted in Roman Catholic countries. Roman Catholics were not the only people to persecute those who did not agree with them. In lands which had become Protestant the Roman Catholics in their turn might suffer imprisonment or death if they would not change their religion. Nowhere did people think of toleration—letting every man choose his religion without being harmed on account of it. In all countries it was thought that people should be of the same religion. We may be rather proud of the fact that there was much less persecution for religion in the Tudor and Stuart periods in England than in other countries. Except in the reign of Mary hardly anybody suffered death or torture for his religion, though some people were fined or imprisoned. And after 1689 toleration became the rule.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Name three important Protestant reformers, and state briefly what was done by each of them.
2. What were the chief ways in which reform was needed in the Church at the beginning of the sixteenth century?
3. Write four or five lines about each of the following: The Inquisition, the Jesuits, the Puritans.
4. How did Elizabeth settle the Church?

CHAPTER 5

THOMAS CROMWELL

Early Life. Thomas Cromwell was a man of low birth; the son of a fuller of Putney. For some years he fought as a soldier on the continent, and upon his return to England he became a secretary to Wolsey, whom he served well. When the Cardinal fell from power and nearly everybody turned against him, Cromwell was faithful to him, and spoke boldly for him. His courage in defending his fallen master pleased the King, and Cromwell entered his service.

The English Reformation. Henry seemed to be no nearer getting his divorce from Catherine of Aragon, and Cromwell advised him to declare himself Supreme Head of the Church, and to settle the matter for himself. At first this was too bold even for Henry, but in 1531 he asked the clergy to declare him Supreme Head of the Church. They did not like to do so, but they were afraid of him, and they stated that he was "Supreme Head of the Church of England as far as the law of Christ doth allow." This satisfied Henry for the time, and a law was passed by Parliament that such cases as the divorce case should not be settled by the Pope, but should be dealt with in England. A court was set up under Cranmer, Archbishop of Canterbury, who gave Henry his divorce. The King married Anne Boleyn, and Cromwell and Cranmer were high in his favour, since they had found a way to settle this troublesome case that Wolsey had failed to solve.

In 1534 Henry went farther, and by Cromwell's advice he got Parliament to pass a law, the Act of Supremacy, which made the King "Supreme Head on earth of the Church of England," and put an end to the power of the Pope in England. No mention of "the law of Christ" this time!

The Monasteries. Cromwell now turned to the monasteries, with the full consent of the King. There were more than six hundred monasteries in England. In time past they had been of great value to the country. The most learned and the most religious men of England had been monks, and only in monastic schools could boys be taught; books had been written by the monks; travellers had been lodged by them; they had helped the poor and the sick. But their day was past. Few men now became monks, and it was said that these were neither very learned nor very religious. The monasteries were certainly very rich. They owned a large part of the land of the country, and if they were brought to an end there would be a great deal of wealth for the King and his friends.

This was not the only reason for ending them. The monks had always looked upon the Pope as Head of the Church, and they were not willing to recognise the King as their Head. They have been called "the Pope's garrison in England." While the monasteries existed the Pope would still have faithful friends in England. For this reason Henry and Cromwell resolved to destroy them.

Cromwell was appointed the King's Vicar-General; this gave him power to do anything he liked in Church matters. He thought that the cherry was too big to be swallowed in one bite, and he decided to deal with the smaller monasteries first. He sent "visitors" to them to find out whether the monks were living good lives. The visitors knew what was expected of them, and their reports were collected in the "Black Book." The reports were so bad that they cannot have been fair and true. Though some of the monks were idle and ignorant and worse, there were some monasteries where this was not so; yet the visitors stated that nearly all were bad.

But the reports were what Cromwell wanted, and in 1536 Parliament passed a law to dissolve all the smaller monasteries—those with an income of less than £200 a year. (This might be equal to £3,000 or £4,000 a year to-day.) The lands and houses of these monasteries were to be given to the King, and the monks and nuns who were turned out were to go

into the larger monasteries, where there was plenty of room for them.

In some parts of the country the people were very angry at the dissolution of the monasteries, and in the north of England and in Lincolnshire there was a serious rebellion, called the Pilgrimage of Grace. The rebels wanted the monasteries to be restored and Cromwell to be dismissed and punished. The monasteries were not restored, and Cromwell was not dismissed; instead, the rebels were put down and their leaders were hanged.

Cromwell now turned to the great monasteries. These were not dissolved by a single Act of Parliament, as the smaller monasteries had been. In 1539 and 1540 each abbot (or abbess) was invited to give up his or her monastery to the King. Most of them did so. The monks and nuns had to leave, and were given pensions. Three abbots who refused to give up their monasteries were hanged, and the monasteries were seized.

The lands and other wealth of the monasteries thus passed to the King. Some of it he kept for himself; much of it was given to his friends; some of it was used in the building of ships and docks and harbours; several new bishoprics were set up, monastic churches serving as their cathedrals; and a few grammar schools were founded.

The Fall of Cromwell. Cromwell had made the King more powerful, in Church as well as in State. He had done his work well, but his work was nearly at an end. His fall, like that of Wolsey, was connected with one of the King's marriages. Cromwell wanted Henry to marry a German princess, Anne of Cleves, and he ordered a portrait-painter, Holbein, to go to Germany and paint her portrait. The portrait showed a very beautiful lady, and Henry was pleased. Anne came to England; unfortunately, she was by no means as beautiful as her portrait—and Henry was not pleased. He was angry with Cromwell, who was sent to the Tower. Probably by this time he was tired of this masterful man, who had been of use to him, but who would be of little further use to him. Shortly afterwards Thomas Cromwell, the "Hammer of the Monks," was beheaded.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. What changes in the English Church were made by Henry VIII?
2. Why were the monasteries dissolved?
3. What was done with the wealth of the monasteries?

CHAPTER 6

ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND IN THE TUDOR PERIOD

The Two Kingdoms. England and Scotland were two kingdoms on one island. They were not good neighbours towards each other. They were always unfriendly; they were sometimes at war, and even when they were not at war raids across the border were common. Scotland was only half as large as England, and its northern part was cold and barren. England was richer than Scotland, and had more people. The Scots always felt that the English might try to conquer them, and that they would have to fight hard to keep their freedom. But England and France were generally unfriendly and were sometimes at war; therefore the Scots and the French were friendly, both being enemies of England.

James IV. In Tudor times a royal marriage—the marriage of a king or prince of one country to a queen or princess of another country—was supposed to make the two countries friendly. Henry VII, the first Tudor king, wanted England and Scotland to be on better terms with each other, and in 1503 his daughter Margaret married the King of Scots, James IV. But the friendship of the two countries did not last long. In 1513, ten years after the marriage, Henry VIII was in Flanders at war with the French, and James led an army into Northumberland. He was met by the Earl of Surrey at Flodden Edge; though the Scottish army fought hard it was not only defeated but was destroyed. James was killed, and so were most of his men.

James V. James V, the son of James IV, was a young child when his father was killed, and Scotland was ruled at first by his mother and then by various Scottish nobles until he grew up. His uncle, Henry VIII, wanted to be friendly with him, but James preferred the French alliance, and married a French

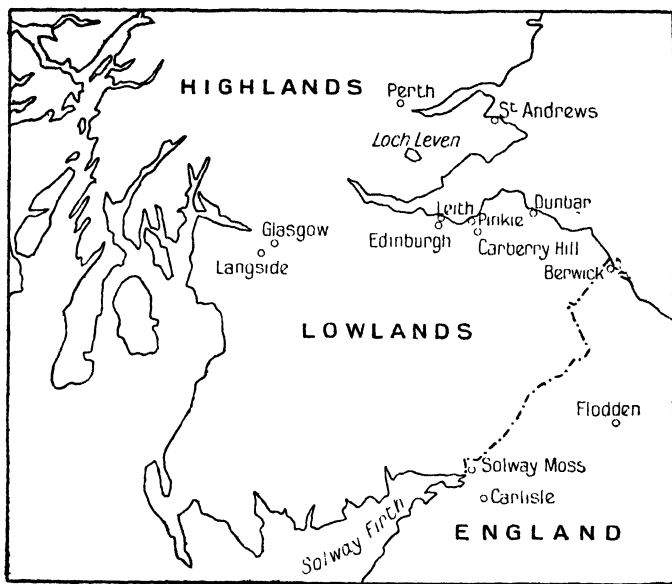
princess, Mary of Guise. In 1542 he sent an army to invade England. It was defeated at the Battle of Solway Moss, and a few days later James died of grief.

Mary Stuart—the child. He left a daughter, Mary Stuart, a week old, to succeed him, and for many years Scotland was ruled by her mother, Mary of Guise. It seemed to Henry VIII that now, if ever, was the time to bring the two countries closer together. Henry had a young son, Edward; Scotland had a young Queen, Mary. If they should marry when they were old enough, the two countries might be united; Edward and Mary would be King and Queen of England and Scotland, and the old rivalry would die out. But the Scots did not like the match. Henry sent an army under the Earl of Hertford into Scotland; Hertford burnt towns and villages and lonely farms, but this did not make the Scots any more eager for the marriage to take place. Henry died and Edward became King, and the Earl of Hertford, who became Duke of Somerset and Protector, again invaded Scotland to force the Scots to agree to the marriage. He hoped to capture the young Queen and bring her to live in England, where the marriage would take place when she was old enough. He defeated the Scots at the Battle of Pinkie in 1547, but he did not capture Mary, who, only five years old, was sent away to France. She was brought up in France, and married the Dauphin, the eldest son of the French king, while Mary of Guise continued to rule Scotland.

The Reformation in Scotland. Scotland at this time was beginning to turn Protestant, and some of the Protestants were burned by order of Cardinal Beaton, Archbishop of St. Andrews. In revenge for this a band of Protestants captured the castle of St. Andrews and killed the Cardinal. Mary of Guise sent soldiers against them, and they were taken and punished. With them in St. Andrews castle was John Knox, a young man who had not been present when Beaton was killed, but who joined the band later because he "gloried in their godly act." Knox was sent to France, and for two years he was a French galley-slave. When

he was set free he went to England, and afterwards returned to Scotland, where he became the leader of the Scottish Reformation.

Knox's preaching turned many of the Scottish people against the Roman Catholic Church. In Perth the people plundered churches and monasteries, and when Mary of Guise sent troops



SCOTLAND IN THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY

to restore order they were defeated by the rebels, who went from town to town and even captured Edinburgh. A small French army landed in Scotland to help Mary of Guise, and it seemed that the Scottish Protestants must be defeated. But Elizabeth, who by this time was Queen of England, sent some English forces to help them. At this time Mary of Guise died, and it was agreed that both English and French troops should leave Scotland. The Scottish Parliament then decided that the religion of the country should no longer be Roman Catholic, but Presby-

terian. This meant that in future there would be no bishops in the Scottish Church, which would be very much like that of Calvin at Geneva.

Mary Stuart—the Queen. While these events were happening in Scotland Mary Stuart's husband, the Dauphin, had become King of France, so that Mary was Queen of both France and Scotland. He was King of France for less than two years, as he died in 1560. Mary decided to return to Scotland and take up the rule of her own kingdom. This was a very brave thing for her to do. She knew nobody in Scotland; she could hardly speak the language of the Scots; she would not be welcome there; she was Roman Catholic, and the Scots were Presbyterian; the land was cold and misty and barren, and she was used to the gay life of the court of France. Yet she went to Scotland, and for four years she ruled well.

In 1565 she married her cousin, Lord Darnley. This was a mistake, for she was a great lady, used to the polite life of France, while he was a fool and a drunkard, with whom she was not in love. She soon tired of him, and became very friendly with her Italian secretary, David Rizzio. Darnley became jealous of Rizzio, and one night, when the Queen and Rizzio were sitting at supper, some of Darnley's friends entered the room. They dragged the Italian into the next room and murdered him.

The Queen never forgave her husband for Rizzio's murder, although she pretended to be friendly with him. In 1567 Darnley lay ill of small-pox in a house near Edinburgh called Kirk o' Field. One night the house was blown up with gunpowder—no doubt in order that Darnley might be killed. He was not killed in the explosion, since next day his body was found some distance away, with sword wounds in it. He had been told of the plot to blow up the house, and had escaped from it in time, ill as he was, but his enemies were near, and they caught him and slew him.

Mary was not there. She had frequently visited Darnley while he lay ill, and had seemed to be very friendly with him. On the day of his death she had gone to be present at the wedding of one

of her servants. Yet it is likely that she knew of the plot to kill her husband. It was believed that the murderer was the Earl of Bothwell, and a few weeks after Darnley's death Mary married



Edward H. Gooch

THE ESCAPE OF MARY STUART FROM LOCH LEVEN CASTLE

Bothwell. It was pretended that Bothwell had carried her off by force to his castle at Dunbar. But the Scots were not fools, and they thought that the marriage of the Queen to her husband's murderer proved that she had helped to plot the crime.

Scottish nobles took up arms and met Mary and Bothwell at Carberry Hill. The meeting is called a battle, but it was hardly

that, for the Queen was captured without fighting, and Bothwell fled. They never met again, for Bothwell became a pirate in the North Sea, and died in prison in Denmark. Mary was taken to Edinburgh and was forced to give up the throne to her infant son, who became James VI. The Scottish lords ordered that she should be imprisoned for the rest of her life in a castle on an island in Loch Leven. For the next twenty years Scotland was ruled on behalf of the boy-king by various Scottish nobles.

In less than a year Mary escaped from Loch Leven Castle. She still had friends who were ready to fight for her, but at the Battle of Langside, 1568, she was hopelessly defeated by the Lords. This time she was not captured. She turned her horse's head and rode straight across country to Solway Firth. Crossing the Firth, she arrived at Carlisle. She was now safe from the Scots, but she was in the power of Elizabeth.

Mary Stuart—in England. Mary hoped that Elizabeth would let her go through England to France. Unfortunately for her, she had always claimed that she, and not Elizabeth, should have been Queen of England, and Elizabeth, now that her rival was in her power, decided to keep her a prisoner in England. She was well treated; she was not imprisoned in the sense of being locked in a cell. She lived at different times in various castles, in the care of English nobles. The two Queens never met. During Mary's nineteen years in England there were, as has been stated elsewhere, several Roman Catholic plots to kill Elizabeth and put Mary on the English throne. It was not certain that Mary knew of the earlier plots, but it was proved that she knew of the last of them. Elizabeth did not wish to have her put to death, but her advisers urged her to do so, and at length she signed the order for Mary's execution. Mary was beheaded at Fotheringhay Castle in 1587.

James VI. By this time James VI was grown up and was ruling Scotland. He sent a protest to Elizabeth when his mother was put to death, but he did nothing more. He was heir to the throne of England, and when Elizabeth died he became King of

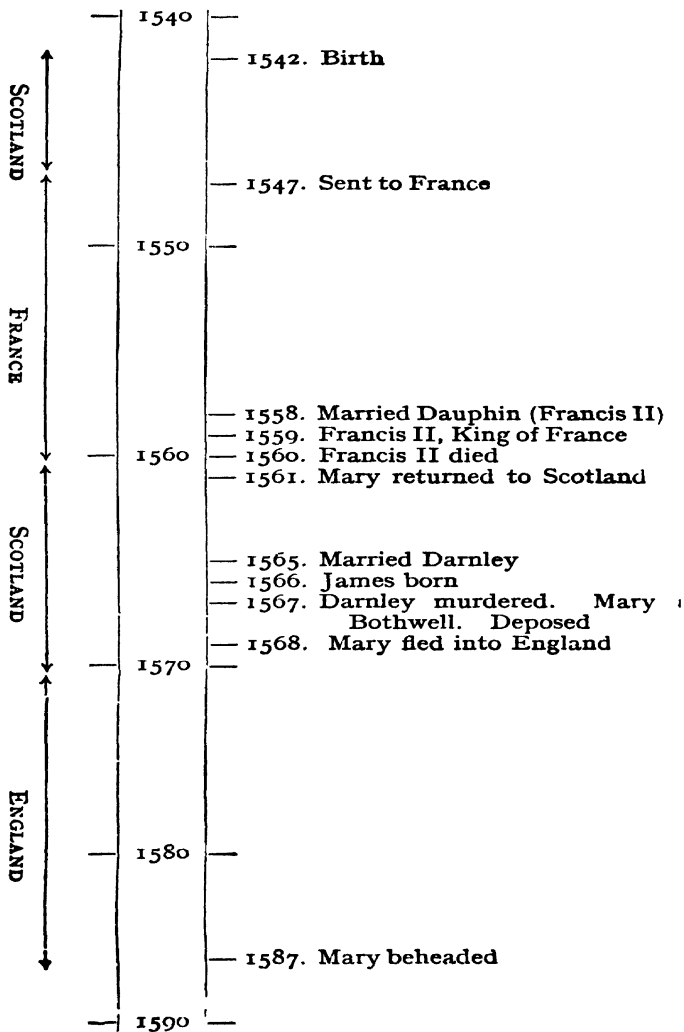
England as James I. From this time England and Scotland had the same king, though another century passed before they were united as the Kingdom of Great Britain.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Name three battles between England and Scotland in the Tudor period, and give the result of each.
2. There were four Stuart sovereigns in the Tudor period. State how each of them died.
3. Write four or five lines about each of the following: Cardinal Beaton, Mary of Guise, Rizzio, Bothwell.
4. Write a short account of the life of Mary Stuart, Queen of Scots.

TIME CHART

MARY STUART



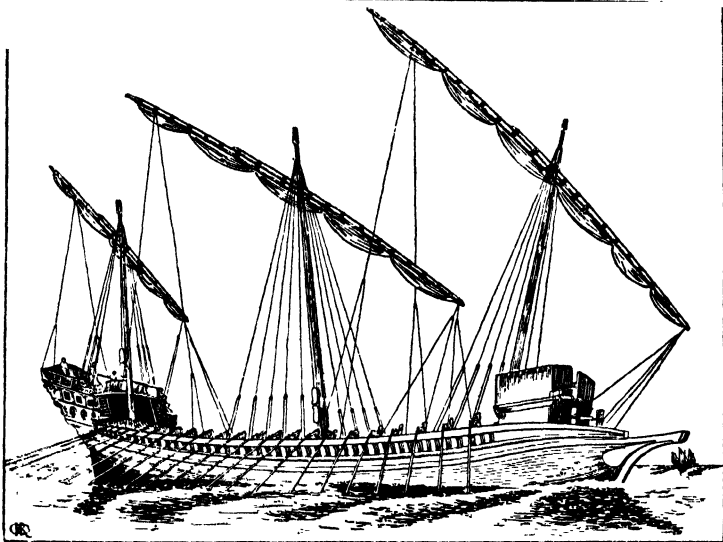
CHAPTER 7

ENGLISH SEAMEN IN THE TUDOR PERIOD

In the Middle Ages. In the ninth century King Alfred built a fleet to fight the Danes; in 1340 the English defeated the French at sea in the Battle of Sluys; and in 1415 Henry V gathered a fleet at Southampton to carry his army across the Channel to Normandy. These were unusual events, for the English were not a seafaring race in the Middle Ages. Before the Tudor period the Royal Navy contained few ships; when warships were needed merchant ships were taken into the King's service. Until the fifteenth century there were not even many English trading ships. Much of England's foreign trade was carried in foreign ships which called at English ports.

Cabot. The great discoveries at the end of the fifteenth century—the discovery of America and of the way to India by sailing round the Cape of Good Hope—had been made by the Spanish and the Portuguese, and Englishmen had taken no part in them. The first English voyage of discovery took place in the reign of Henry VII, and though the ships and crews were English the captain was an Italian named John Cabot. The King gave Cabot permission to sail to the west and find a way to Asia, and he gave him ten pounds towards the cost of the voyage. In 1497 Cabot sailed from Bristol in a small ship, the *Matthew*, with a crew of eighteen men. He reached Newfoundland, which he thought was part of the coast of Asia. In the following year he made a second voyage, this time with five ships, and he explored some part of the coast of North America. No settlement was made, but Cabot reported that cod was to be found off the coast of Newfoundland, and before long a cod fishery was begun which has been carried on ever since. Cabot was rewarded by the King with a pension of twenty pounds a year.

Henry VIII. Henry VIII wanted to increase English power at sea. He built for the Royal Navy more than eighty ships, which were different from the galleys in the service of Spain and France. Galleys were rowed by slaves, and in a naval battle the fighting



A MEDITERRANEAN GALLEY

From *Everyday Things in England*, by Marjorie and C. H. B. Quennell

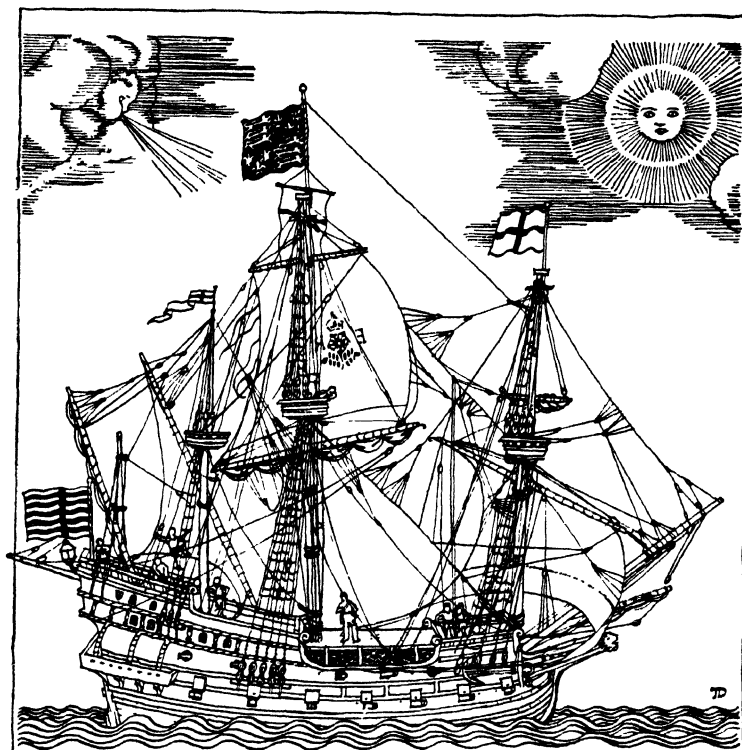
men on a galley tried either to ram or to board the galleys of the enemy. In either case the galleys had to come very close to the enemy. Henry's ships were sailing ships, and he mounted guns on them; they could thus sink the galleys of an enemy without coming very near them.

Many merchant ships were built during the reign, and English merchants began to trade with far distant lands. The English coast was made safer for shipping by the placing of buoys and beacons. Harbours were improved, river channels were deepened by dredging, and docks were built.

Channel Rovers. In the latter part of the Tudor period there were many pirates in the English Channel. The Netherlands were part of the Spanish Empire, and many ships trading between Spain and the Netherlands passed through the Channel. Men of Devon and Cornwall built small fast ships, in which they sailed out and attacked the Spanish vessels, gaining many a rich prize. Though this was piracy, it was not quite like ordinary piracy; it was a kind of religious and national piracy. It was English and Protestant, and it was directed against Catholic Spain. These Channel Rovers felt that Spain was the enemy of their country, and that every time they took a prize they were weakening Spain. The Rovers were good sailors; they had to be, for if they were caught they would certainly be hanged. This piracy in the English Channel was going on in the reign of Mary, and it continued in the time of Elizabeth. Philip of Spain complained to Elizabeth, and as the Queen, in the earlier part of her reign at least, did not want war with Spain she promised to try to stop it. Yet she knew that the Rovers were weakening Spain and making England stronger, and she did nothing to put them down.

Elizabethan Seamen. Many more Englishmen went to sea in the reign of Elizabeth than ever before. By this time Spain had founded colonies in America, and the Portuguese had made settlements in India and elsewhere in the East, and also in Brazil, in South America. Both these countries were growing rich by their colonial trade, and many English people thought that England also might become richer by overseas trade. And there were other ways for seamen to gain wealth than by trade!

Hawkins. Sir John Hawkins tried to carry on trade with Spanish colonies in America. The King of Spain would not allow his colonies to trade with any foreign country, such as England, but Hawkins did not care about this. The Spanish gentlemen who had settled in America could not get enough men to work on their lands. They tried to enslave the native Indians, but the Indians were not used to hard work on the land, and many of them fell ill and died. Hawkins thought that negroes might be



ENGLISH MAN of WAR

1580-1600

Drawing derived from the model made by R. Morton Nance Esq. & lent by him to the Science Museum at South Kensington.

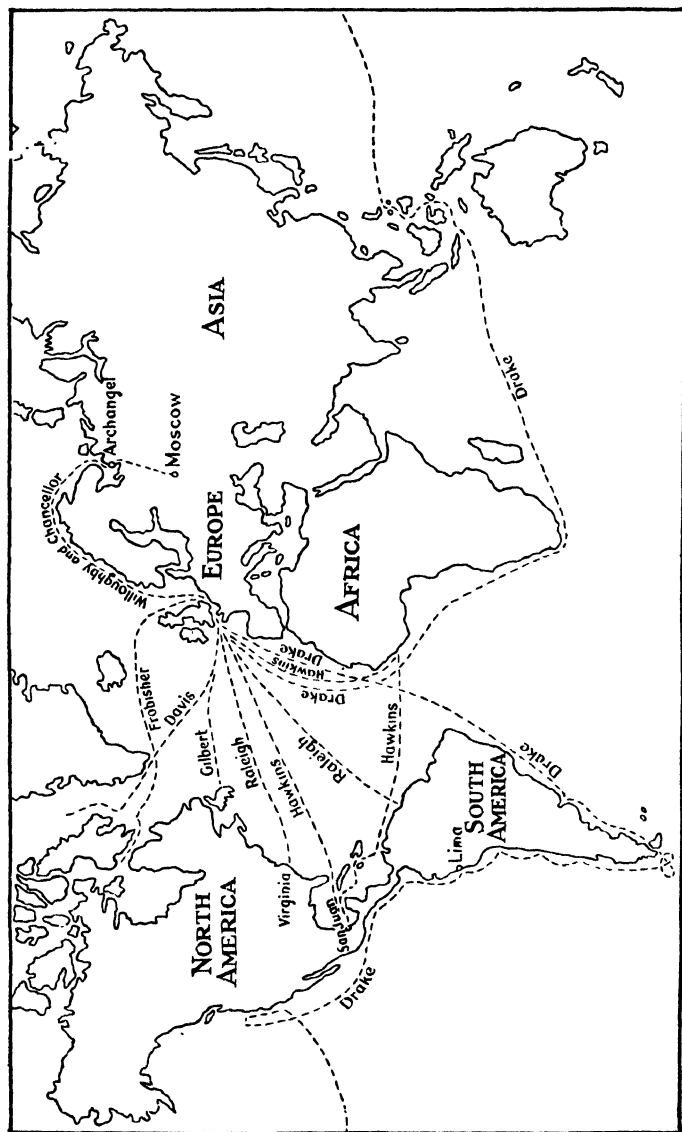


taken from Africa to America and sold as slaves to the Spanish colonists, who would be glad to buy them. With three ships he sailed in 1562 to the west coast of Africa, and captured about three hundred negroes. He crossed the Atlantic and visited several Spanish colonial ports, and, though the Spanish officials told him he might not sell his negroes, he found that the settlers were willing to buy them. He sold his slaves and returned home with his ships laden with Spanish goods, which were sold in England. The voyage had been a great success.

A year or two later Hawkins made another round trip, and again he was successful. He set out on his third voyage in 1567, with five ships. After he had sold his slaves his ships were damaged in a storm, and he put into a Spanish harbour for repairs. While he was there a Spanish fleet of warships arrived, and Hawkins was trapped! The Spanish admiral promised to let the English ships depart unharmed, but he broke his word. A fight took place in the harbour, in which Hawkins lost three of his five ships and many of his men—though the Englishmen gave a good account of themselves by sinking four Spanish ships. The only English vessels which escaped were those commanded by Hawkins himself and his young cousin, Francis Drake. Hawkins's third slave voyage was thus a failure—but he and Drake had learned what the word of a Spaniard was worth.

Elizabeth took a neat revenge on Philip a few weeks later. Some Spanish ships which were laden with money for the Spanish army in the Netherlands were sailing up the Channel, when pirates appeared. To avoid the pirates the treasure ships put into Plymouth harbour. Elizabeth seized the treasure "to protect it from the pirates," as she said. Needless to say she never gave it up.

Drake. From this time there was no further hope of regular trading with Spanish colonies. Drake, a Devon man, made up his mind to attack the Spaniards wherever they were to be found; in other words, he would act as a Channel Rover, though not merely in the English Channel but also in the Atlantic Ocean and in America, and, later on, in the Pacific Ocean as well. He made



VOYAGES OF ENGLISH SEAMEN

many voyages across the Atlantic; he captured Spanish ships, and he plundered Spanish towns in the New World.

In 1572 Drake landed on the Isthmus of Panama, and from a



SIR FRANCIS DRAKE

tree top he saw the Pacific Ocean. He captured a train of mules laden with gold and silver, and returned to England with his booty, though with only half the men who had set out with him. England and Spain were not at war at this time, and Drake must be regarded as a pirate; if he had been captured by the Spaniards he would have been put to death as a pirate. But he was no ordinary pirate. He was never cruel to the prisoners he took.

He fought only against Spain, and he looked upon the treasure he had taken as making up for what he and Hawkins had lost a few years before.

In 1577 Drake, with five ships, set out from Plymouth on the most famous of his voyages. His largest ship, the *Pelican*, was of no more than one hundred tons, while the second ship, the *Elizabeth*, was of only eighty tons; the others were much smaller. The five vessels carried about a hundred and sixty men. On this occasion Drake was sailing under the Queen's orders, so that he was no longer a mere pirate. He sailed to the South Atlantic, where he had to make his way through heavy storms. With great difficulty he passed through the Strait of Magellan into the Pacific Ocean. By this time the smaller vessels of his little fleet were lost, and the *Elizabeth* had parted company from the *Pelican* and returned to England.

Drake refitted the *Pelican* and renamed her the *Golden Hind*. He sailed northwards by the coast of South America, taking a few small Spanish ships here and there. Until this time no English vessel had ever sailed on the Pacific Ocean, and the Spaniards were taken by surprise and were not ready to beat off Drake's attacks. He learned that a ship laden with gold and silver from the mines of Peru had sailed northwards from Lima for the Isthmus of Panama. (The Spaniards used to send the Peruvian treasure by sea to the Isthmus; it was carried across the isthmus by mule-train; and it was taken across the Atlantic to Spain in the treasure fleet.) Drake pursued and overtook the treasure ship, and captured it by a sudden attack; he took the gold and silver into his own ship and was off again.

It was now time to think of returning to England. Drake sailed farther north, hoping to be able to get round the north of America. (At that time nobody knew for certain that the north coast of America was ice-bound.) But the farther north he sailed the more the west coast of North America trended to the north-west, and Drake gave up the attempt to reach England by this way. He sailed boldly across the Pacific, rounded the Cape of Good Hope, and sailed to England, which he reached in October, 1580. He was the first Englishman to sail round the

world, and he had been away from England for nearly three years. The treasure which he had brought home was placed for safety in the Tower of London. The Spanish said that he was a pirate, and they demanded that he should be given over to them



Edward H. Gooch

QUEEN ELIZABETH KNIGHTING DRAKE

to be punished, but a few days after his return Queen Elizabeth visited him on his ship and knighted him.

This was Drake's greatest and most famous voyage, but he crossed the Atlantic again and again, and every time he gave much trouble to the Spanish. In 1587, when it was known that Philip was getting ready to attack England, Drake sailed to Cadiz and destroyed more than thirty Spanish ships. The sailing of the Armada was delayed for more than a year.

Drake's work in the defeat of the Armada is described in another chapter. He made another attack on Spanish ports in 1589, but this time with little success. In 1595 he went with



In
M O S C O V I E
which is also called
R U S S I A

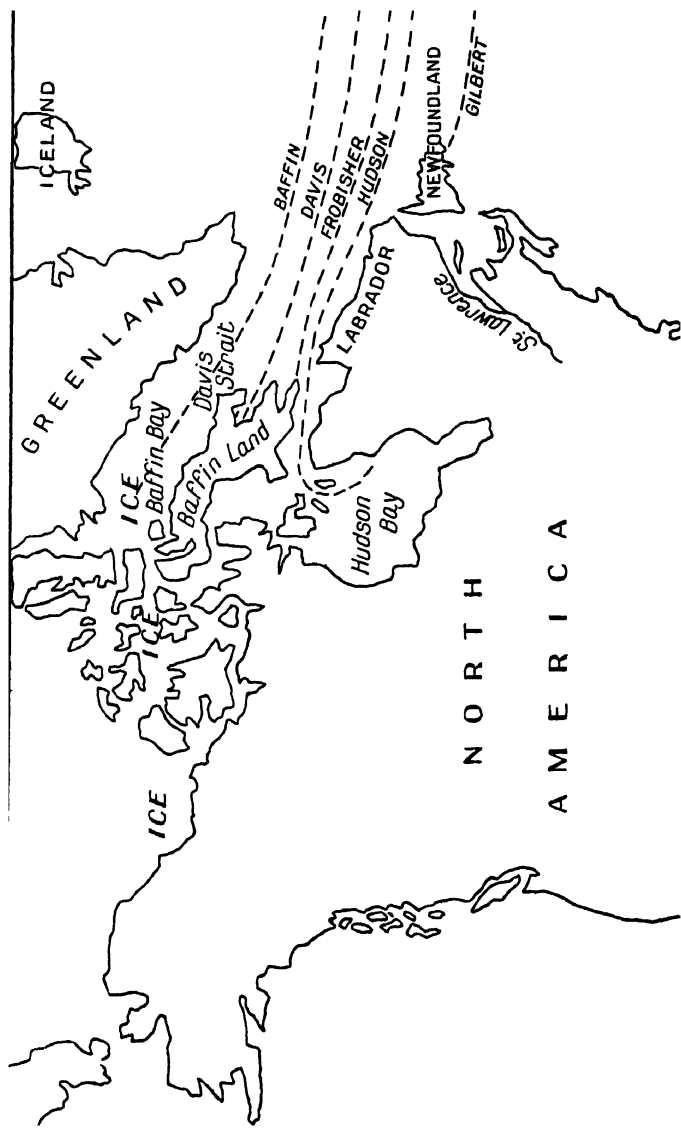
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Hawkins on what proved to be his last voyage to the Spanish Main; both Hawkins and Drake died, and both were buried at sea.

Exploring. In the reigns of Mary and Elizabeth English seamen tried to find new ways to the East. The Venetians traded with India by way of Egypt and the Red Sea; the Portuguese did so by the Cape of Good Hope; and it was even possible to reach India by sailing through the Strait of Magellan and across the Pacific Ocean, though the way was very long. A better way was wanted, and Sir Hugh Willoughby and Richard Chancellor hoped to find it by sailing round the north of Europe and Asia. It can be seen from the map that this way would be very long and hard, even if it were not ice-bound. But Willoughby and Chancellor did not know this, and it is only through the work of such men that it has been possible to draw the map. Willoughby died of cold on the voyage. Chancellor landed at Archangel, on the White Sea, and made his way overland to Moscow. He did not reach India, but he was able to begin trade between England and Russia.

Sir Humphrey Gilbert wrote a *Discourse* in which he stated many reasons for trying to find a North-West passage (round the north of America) to the East. He thought it would be shorter than any other way; no other Christian nation had tried it; settlements could be formed to which unemployed people and beggars and rogues from England could be sent; woollen cloth made in England could be sold in these settlements; heathen nations could be converted to the Christian religion; and, since it had been found that the south seas were not too hot for men to sail there, there was no reason to think that the northern seas would be too cold.

Martin Frobisher made three voyages in trying to find a North-West passage, but he was unable to find a way free from ice. Some years later John Davis also made three attempts to find the ice-free passage. Other efforts were made in the reign of James I by William Baffin and by Henry Hudson. Hudson reached the bay which is named after him, but his men mutinied and sent him adrift in an open boat, in which he died.



THE NORTH-WEST PASSAGE

Settlements. Yet others of the Elizabethan seamen tried to found colonies in the New World, in regions not settled by the Spanish. Sir Humphrey Gilbert began a settlement on the



Edward H. Gooch

THE LAST VOYAGE OF HENRY HUDSON

island of Newfoundland, but his men were too few, and they were not well supplied with food and other things. Gilbert sailed for England, hoping to return with more men and supplies. But his small ship, the *Squirrel*, sank in a storm, and the colony died out.

Sir Walter Raleigh was the half-brother of Gilbert, and was interested in his attempts to set up a colony in Newfoundland. He resolved to try to found a settlement farther south in North America. The Queen gave him permission to send out settlers, but not to go himself; she preferred him to remain at court. In 1584 he sent two captains, Amadas and Barlow, to find a suitable place for a settlement. They brought back a very good report of the region they visited, and in 1585 Raleigh sent out a band of settlers under Sir Richard Grenville. The colony was named Virginia, in honour of the Queen. The first colonists were not of the right type. They did not like the hard work of clearing and tilling the ground and building houses and making roads, and they wasted their time looking for gold. Grenville quarrelled with the Indians, and before long he sailed for England in order to obtain help for the colony. In the following year Drake, returning from one of his visits to the West Indies, called at the colony and, at the request of the colonists, took them on board his ships and brought them back to England. When Grenville returned to Virginia he found the settlement deserted. He left a few of his men there, but they were not heard of again. In 1587 Raleigh sent out a second band of settlers, but these men fared no better than the others. No help could be sent to them in 1588, the year of the Armada, and when, in 1589, a relief ship visited Virginia no trace of the settlers could be found. They had been either killed or taken away as prisoners by the Indians. Raleigh, who had spent £40,000 in founding a colony in Virginia, did not try again.

At the end of the Tudor period England had no possessions overseas. But if there were yet no English colonies it could no longer be said that Englishmen were a race of farmers, not used to the sea. English seamen had gained fame by their courage and daring. They attacked Spanish power in many parts of the world, and, as is described in another chapter, they overcame the great Armada which Spain sent against their country. Spanish power began to decline, while England was building up a sea-power which in time became the greatest in the world.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Which Tudor king or queen did most to strengthen the navy, and what did he or she do?
2. Write a short life of Sir Francis Drake.
3. What attempts were made to found English colonies in the Tudor period? Why did they fail?
4. Write four or five lines about each of the following: Richard Chancellor, John Hawkins, John Cabot, Richard Grenville.
5. What was the North-West passage? What attempts were made to find it in the reigns of Elizabeth and James I?

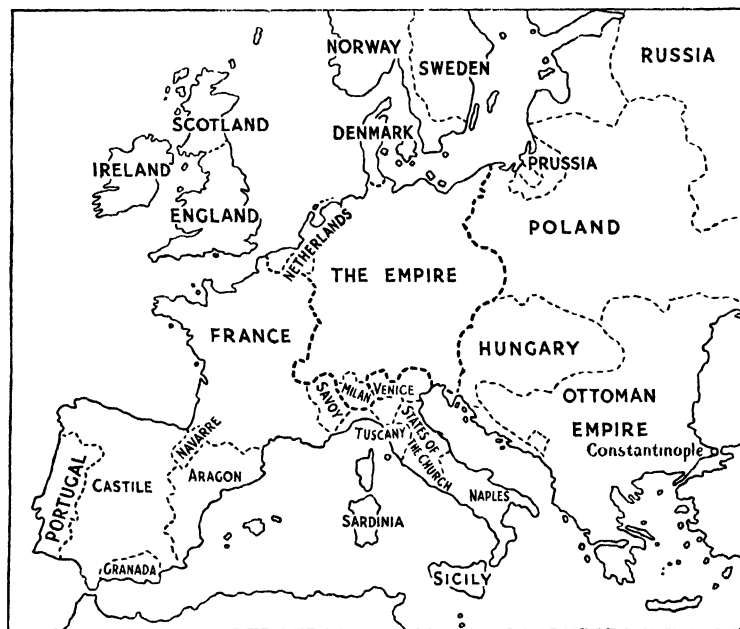
CHAPTER 8

EUROPE IN TUDOR TIMES

Europe. A map of Europe as it was at the beginning of the Tudor period is not quite like a map of the continent to-day. Some of the countries were smaller than they are now; others were larger; very few have remained for four or five centuries with their boundaries unchanged. Russia was not looked upon as part of Europe at all. It did not reach as far south as the Black Sea, nor as far west as the Baltic Sea. Poland was a very large country lying between Russia and the Holy Roman Empire. The Balkan Peninsula was part of the Turkish Empire, which was separated from the Holy Roman Empire by the kingdom of Hungary. Italy was not a kingdom at all; it contained several smaller states, of which the most important were the kingdom of Naples in the south and the Papal States in the middle. France did not stretch so far to the east as she does now; she did not touch the Rhine at any point. Spain at this time became one kingdom through the marriage of Ferdinand of Aragon and Isabella of Castile.

The Holy Roman Empire. Central Europe was covered by the Holy Roman Empire, which extended farther to the west and south, and not so far to the east, as modern Germany. It included the Netherlands (modern Holland and Belgium), Switzerland, Austria, and Bohemia, but not Prussia. It contained over three hundred states, large and small, most of which were ruled by their princes, who bore various titles—kings, dukes, arch-dukes, counts, and bishops. At its head was the Holy Roman Emperor, but the crown of the Empire did not always go from father to son, as did that of most other countries. When the Emperor died seven of the most important princes of the Empire, known as Electors, chose the next Emperor. Sometimes they elected a son of the last Emperor, but this did not always happen.

Sixteenth-century Wars. The history of Europe in the sixteenth century is a long tale of the wars which the kings made upon one another for the sake of gaining more land and power. After the Reformation had begun many wars were fought in



EUROPE IN THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY

order that one country might force another to change its religion. Kings who were about to go to war tried to obtain allies who would help them in the fighting, and whenever an alliance was made there was, if possible, a royal marriage—the marriage of a king or prince of one country to a queen or princess of the other.

England and Spain friendly. Henry VII wanted to be friendly with Spain. Therefore, Arthur, Prince of Wales, married Catherine of Aragon in 1501, and Spain and England became allies. But

Arthur died in 1502, and to keep the alliance the King arranged that his second son, Henry, should marry Catherine. The Pope gave his consent to the marriage, which took place in 1509 after the younger Henry had become King as Henry VIII, and for many years the two countries remained allies. In 1512-13 England and Spain made war on France, and Henry in 1513 defeated the French at the Battle of Spurs. The battle was so called because, it was said, the French made more use of their spurs in getting away than of their swords in fighting.

In 1519 the Holy Roman Emperor died, and the Kings of France and Spain both wanted to be elected Emperor. Charles, King of Spain, was chosen (as Charles V), and Francis, King of France, made war upon his rival for many years. Both kings were powerful, and both tried to gain Henry's alliance. Francis received Henry near Calais at a great tournament known as the Field of the Cloth of Gold, but he did not win the English king over. Charles gained the support of Wolsey by promising to do his best to get the Cardinal elected Pope, and Wolsey, no doubt, persuaded Henry to join with Charles. This was not difficult, for Henry was still married to Catherine of Aragon, who was the Emperor's aunt. Some years later, when Henry wanted to divorce Catherine, he broke off the alliance with Charles and went over to the side of Francis. In later years he was sometimes on one side and sometimes on the other.

Charles V was succeeded as King of Spain, though not as Emperor, by his son, Philip II, who was ready to carry on his father's wars against France. He was also very eager to stamp out Protestantism wherever it existed in Europe, and his reign, like that of Charles, was full of wars. He married Mary Tudor to make sure of the English alliance, and England took part in a war with France in which Calais was lost.

When Elizabeth succeeded to the throne Philip offered to marry her; he hoped in this way to keep the alliance of England. Elizabeth declined the offer, but for some time England and Spain remained friendly. Elizabeth's rival was Mary Stuart, who had been married to the King of France. If Mary should ever become Queen of England in place of Elizabeth England would

become an ally of France against Spain. Therefore Philip felt bound to support Elizabeth.

England and Spain unfriendly. Yet times were changing. English merchants tried to trade with Spanish colonies, which Philip would not allow, and Hawkins lost some of his ships. English seamen were attacking Spanish ships in the Channel and on the Spanish Main. This was English piracy against Spain, and Philip was naturally very angry about it. Above all, England under Elizabeth had broken away from the Church of Rome, and Philip wanted to bring all Europe back into the Roman Catholic Church. The Dutch, who had been under the rule of Spain, had revolted, and Englishmen were going over to Holland to help them.

For a long time Philip could do nothing. If he made war on England and deposed Elizabeth the next queen would be Mary Stuart. She was friendly with France, and had been Queen of France, and if she became Queen of England this country would certainly become an ally of France against Spain. Therefore Philip held back for many years.

When Mary Stuart was beheaded in 1587 Philip was free to act. He could now claim the throne of England for himself, and he prepared a mighty fleet for the invasion of England. But the story of the Armada must be told in another chapter.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Mention some of the ways in which a map of Europe at the beginning of the Tudor period is different from a map of Europe to-day.

2. Which were the most important countries in Europe in the sixteenth century? Write three or four lines about each of them.

3. Why were England and Spain friendly in the first four Tudor reigns, and why did they become unfriendly during the reign of Elizabeth?

4. Write three or four lines about each of the following: Charles V, Ferdinand of Aragon, Philip II, Francis I.

CHAPTER 9

THE ARMADA AND THE WAR WITH SPAIN

Why the Armada was prepared. After the death of Mary Stuart Philip at once prepared to attack England. Mary had left her claim to the English throne to him, and he intended not merely to defeat the English but to make England part of his Empire. He would depose Elizabeth, who as far back as 1570 had been declared by the Pope to be no longer Queen of England. If he were successful the attacks of English seamen on Spanish ships and towns in the New World would cease, and no more help would be sent to the Dutch. The revolt of the Netherlands would be crushed and, what was more, England would become a Roman Catholic country again, and the Reformation would be at an end. Everything that Philip wanted would come to pass if the Armada succeeded. No wonder he did his best to make it a success!

Drake at Cadiz. A few years earlier Philip had conquered Portugal, which was now under his rule, and Portuguese ports as well as Spanish were used in preparing a great fleet. Many large ships were built, guns were made, and stores of all kinds were collected. All this was known to the English, and in April, 1587, Drake visited Spain to see how the preparations were getting on. With a fleet of thirty ships he entered Cadiz harbour. He took the Spanish by surprise, and the guns of his ships did a great deal of damage before he left Cadiz. This "singeing the King of Spain's beard" forced Philip to put off the sailing of his fleet until the following year.

The Armada. At length the Armada was ready, and it sailed from Lisbon in May, 1588, under the command of the Duke of Medina Sidonia, a Spanish noble of very high rank, who knew very little about fighting at sea. The ships were large and high,

and they carried guns, but, strictly speaking, most of them were not warships so much as troopships. They carried an army of 19,000 men, and it was arranged that they should go to the Netherlands and take on board a further 16,000 men of the army of the Duke of Parma, the Spanish general who was trying to put down the Dutch revolt. The whole force was to be landed in England. Spanish soldiers were well trained and were good fighters, and it was expected that this army would soon conquer England.

The English Army. Against the Spaniards the English had a fleet and an army. The army consisted of 70,000 men from the south and east of England gathered at Tilbury under the command of the Earl of Leicester, and men from the more distant parts of the country arrived every day. These men were not trained soldiers; they were Englishmen who had left the plough or the workshop to defend their country. They were not the equals of the Spanish in training, but most Englishmen could use the bow and the pike, which were still their chief weapons, and they would certainly fight hard. (They had had as much training as the men who fought at Crécy, at Agincourt, and in other great battles.) Queen Elizabeth visited Tilbury, and rode on a white horse down the lines of cheering men.

The English Fleet. The ships of the English fleet outnumbered those of Spain. The Royal Navy was no larger than in the time of Henry VIII, but every merchant ship and every rover ship that was fit for sea turned out. There was not then so much difference between warships and trading vessels as there is now. Most merchant ships carried guns for defence against pirates, and more guns could be placed on a ship's deck when needed, as they were then. Most of the English ships were smaller than those of the Armada, but they were built on better lines. They were lower in the water, and they were faster. They were well manned, for by this time the English were far better sailors than their enemies. The whole fleet, like the Armada, was commanded by a great noble. Lord Howard of Effingham was the Admiral,



Edward H. Gooch

QUEEN ELIZABETH AT TILBURY

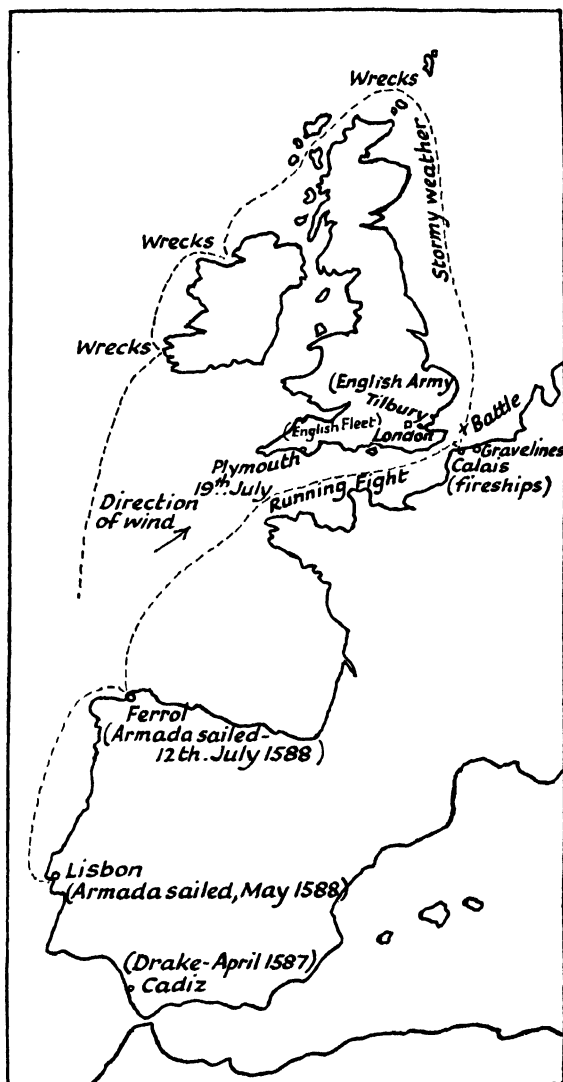
and under him were Sir Francis Drake as Vice-Admiral and Sir John Hawkins as Rear-Admiral. The captain of the largest ship in the English fleet was Sir Martin Frobisher.

Lord Howard was a Roman Catholic. Perhaps Philip expected that when he attacked England the Roman Catholics would rise against Elizabeth and help the Spanish. If so, he was disappointed, for the Roman Catholics remained loyal to the Queen. Even though they knew that Philip's victory would mean that England would become a Roman Catholic country again they put their country first, for they did not want Philip to be their king.

Prospects of success. The danger to England from the Armada seemed great. Yet we cannot think that it had a great chance of success. At sea, Englishmen were more than a match for their enemies, and even if the Spanish army had landed it would have been too small for the conquest of England. And if it had won victories over the English army many Spanish soldiers would have been killed and many more wounded. An invading army must always have further supplies of men, food, and ammunition, and the Channel Rovers would see to it that these supplies were cut off. Sooner or later any Spanish army in England would be forced to surrender or would be destroyed.

Spanish difficulties. Most of the seamen in the Spanish ships had been trained on the calm surface of the Mediterranean, and when they found themselves on the rough waters of the Atlantic they suffered from seasickness. Some of the food was bad, and illness occurred from this cause also. Soon after the Armada had put to sea a gale sprang up, and some of the ships were damaged. The fleet had to put in at Ferrol for repairs, and to enable the men to recover. In July, 1588, it left Ferrol and made for the Channel.

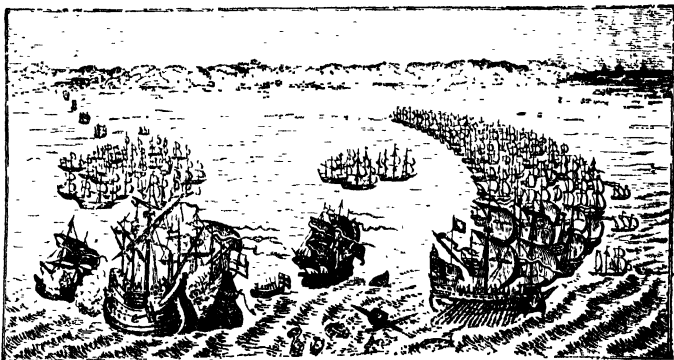
The Armada in the Channel. The English fleet was awaiting it at Plymouth. Drake was ashore, playing at bowls on Plymouth Hoe, when news reached him that the Spanish had been



THE ARMADA

sighted. He refused to leave his game unfinished, being sure that he had plenty of time before the Spanish would be near enough to fight.

The Armada passed Plymouth and continued up Channel. The English ships followed, firing at the great Spanish galleons and doing some damage to them. The enemy returned the fire, but they could not lower their guns, and their shot passed high



THE ARMADA

over the English ships. The Spanish fleet at length reached Calais. They did not remain there. Drake had eight barges loaded with tar and other rapidly burning stuff; these were set on fire, and during the night they floated into Calais Harbour on the rising tide. The Spanish tried to get their ships out of the way of these floating masses of flame. They slipped their cables, for they were in too much hurry to weigh anchor properly. In trying to leave the harbour they collided with one another, and a good deal of damage was done, though no Spanish ship was actually set on fire by the fire-ships.

The Defeat of the Armada. A great battle followed, off Grave-lines. The Spanish were utterly defeated, and the battle ended only because the English were running short of powder. It was

now out of the question for Medina Sidonia to take Parma's troops on board, and the only thing he could do was to run before the wind in the North Sea and to go round the north of Scotland. The wind became a gale, and many of the Spanish ships were wrecked on the coasts and islands of the north and west of Scotland and Ireland. Out of a hundred and thirty ships which left Spain only fifty-three returned.

Results of the Defeat. The war between England and Spain was not over; it had only just begun. Yet the results of the defeat of the Armada were already clear. England was not conquered and was not likely to be conquered. The Dutch could now hope to win their fight for freedom from Spain. The Reformation would not be brought to an end. England would not be forced to become Roman Catholic again. The attacks of English seamen on Spanish power overseas would continue.

The War which followed. In 1589 Drake led an attack against Spain itself. He captured Corunna and burnt some ships, but a raid on Lisbon failed. In 1591 occurred a famous fight between the *Revenge* and a Spanish fleet of fifty-three ships. Though the *Revenge* was taken, and her captain, Sir Richard Grenville, was mortally wounded, she sank soon after the battle, in which the Spanish fleet suffered heavy losses. In 1596 Philip began to fit out a new Armada, but Lord Howard and the Earl of Essex visited Cadiz and destroyed the ships. Philip died in 1598, but the war went on until after the death of Elizabeth. Peace was made soon after James I became King.

Elizabeth. The victory over the Armada was a triumph for Elizabeth. Early in her reign she had seen that one day there would be war between England and Spain, and she had prepared for it by managing to put it off until England was strong enough to beat Spain. She had not only saved herself, but England, and to the end of her life she was almost worshipped by the nation.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Make a list of the things which Philip II hoped to gain by the Armada.
2. Compare the English and Spanish fleets in the following ways:
 - (a) The number of ships.
 - (b) The kind of ships.
 - (c) The command of the fleet.
 - (d) The sailors.
3. Give three reasons why the Spanish Armada failed.
4. What were the results of the defeat of the Armada?

CHAPTER 10

ENGLISH LIFE IN THE TUDOR PERIOD

English country folk. At the beginning of the Tudor period most of the people of England lived in the country and worked on the land. England was not yet a nation of townsmen nor of sailors, and centuries were to pass before she became the "workshop of the world." In the Middle Ages three-quarters of the country people had been serfs; they had to work on the land of their lords as well as their own land, and they were not allowed to leave the village in which they lived. But by the end of the fifteenth century most of the serfs had become free; in only a few places did serfdom linger on during the Tudor period.

Pasture land. In the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries some of the arable land was turned into pasture land, and sheep were grazed where formerly corn had been grown. One reason for this change was that English wool was needed in the Netherlands, where fine woollen cloths were woven in many towns. The change from arable to pasture was chiefly in the eastern part of the country, whence it was easy to send the wool, on boat or barge, down a river to a port at its mouth, for many English rivers flowed into the North Sea. From the port the wool was taken to Calais, where there was a great market for it and Flemish merchants came to buy it.

Henry VIII did not like so much pasture farming, and laws were passed ordering that new pasture was to be returned to the plough and that nobody was to keep more than two thousand sheep. But these laws could not be enforced. A country squire who was ordered to plough up a grass field would plough one furrow across it; it was thus "returned to the plough." And, though a man might not have more than two thousand sheep, his wife could have another two thousand, and his children two thousand each. And who could count the sheep?

Wool. Not all the wool was sent abroad. Woollen cloth was

made in England also, and during the Tudor period more and more cloth was made at home and less and less wool was sent abroad. In the time of Queen Elizabeth the Netherlands revolted against the rule of Spain; there was hard fighting for many years, and not so much cloth was made there. The men of Flanders could not use so much of the English wool as formerly, but this did not matter very much to the English people, as by this time most of their wool was wanted at home. The time came when all the English wool was used in England, and in 1660 it was forbidden to export wool. From that time the weaving of woollen cloth in England used all the wool grown in England besides a good deal that was imported.

Beggars. Wool made England a prosperous, even a rich, country. But for many people pasture farming was not a good thing. A village which had perhaps fifty or sixty men at work tilling the ground might be turned into one big sheep farm on which half a dozen shepherds would be enough. The other men would not be wanted. They would lose their land and their houses, and many of them would become beggars. Other men who had been retainers of the great nobles and who had fought in the Wars of the Roses had nothing to do and nowhere to go after Henry VII had forbidden great lords to keep retainers; these men also turned to begging. These beggars wandered about the country in gangs, and they not only begged but stole whenever they could. While the monasteries existed they could get some food at the gate of any great abbey whenever they cared to ask for it. But when the monasteries were dissolved workless people might be left to starve. Something had to be done.

Punishment for begging. At first it was thought that beggars were lazy people who would not work and who ought to be made to work. Few people realised that there was no work for them to do. In the reign of Henry VIII a law was passed that any person found begging was to be whipped twice "on his bare back, until his back be bloody by reason of such whipping." While Edward VI was King an even more cruel law was passed, order-

ing that beggars should be branded with a hot iron and kept as slaves. But this law was soon repealed.

Relief of the Poor. These laws did not put an end to the trouble. There were still very many poor people, and Queen Mary ordered that money should be collected in churches and given to them. This system was continued by Queen Elizabeth, and, as some people gave a good deal of money while others gave very little or nothing at all, it was ordered that the amount to be given by each man was to be fixed. It was no longer collected in church, and it was called the poor-rate.

Elizabeth saw that it was not always through their own fault that people were poor, and many laws dealing with the poor were passed in her reign, the most important being the Poor Law of 1601. By this it was ordered that every parish should look after its own poor people. There was to be a house in which those who had no other home could live. If they were able to work they were given work to do; if they were old, or too ill to work, they were to be kept; and poor children were to be taught a trade so that when they grew up they would be able to earn their own living.

By the time of Elizabeth there were not quite so many of these poor persons as there had been earlier in the Tudor period. Some of the pasture lands had been ploughed up, so that more people were employed on the land. Many men went to sea and enjoyed a life of trading or of piracy in the Channel or on the Spanish Main. Towns were growing, and more and more people went to work in them.

Workmen in towns. In the later Middle Ages all the industries were controlled by guilds. There were guilds (or societies) of bakers, weavers, hatters, saddlers, and so on. Nobody was allowed to work at any of these trades unless he was a member of its guild, and he could join the guild only after having been an apprentice and learning the trade. Before the Tudor period these workmen always lived in towns, and were safe within the town walls; they were not so safe in the country, where they could be robbed by fierce barons. In Tudor times the

countryside was much safer, and many workmen lived in villages, or built their houses outside the walls of a town, where they did not need to be members of a gild, which had power only inside the walls. Many of these workmen had never been apprentices; they had not been properly trained for their work, and the articles they turned out were not always well made.

The Statute of Artificers. In order that all English workmen should be well trained and that English goods should be well made, a law, the Statute of Artificers (or workmen), was passed in 1563. It ordered that nobody should work at a trade, either in town or country, unless he had been an apprentice for seven years. Every man or boy over twelve and under sixty was to work in some way or other (unless he was rich), and if he had no other trade he was to work as a labourer on the land. The wages to be paid to workmen by their employers in the various trades were fixed; employers were not to offer less nor the workmen to ask for more than the proper amounts. The Statute of Artificers was enforced for the next one hundred and fifty years—longer in some places. One remarkable thing may be said about this law. It satisfied nearly everybody, a thing we can say about very few of our laws to-day. Employers and workers seem to have been treated fairly, and when the fixing of wages was given up the workers often asked for it to be restored. In another way the effect of the law was good. English workmen became highly skilled, and the goods they produced were among the best in the world.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Why was much arable land turned into pasture land in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries?
2. How did Henry VIII try to prevent arable land from being turned into pasture land? Why did he fail?
3. Why were there so many poor people in the early part of the Tudor period?
4. Why were there fewer poor people in the reign of Elizabeth?
5. What was ordered by (a) the Statute of Artificers of 1563, and (b) the Poor Law of 1601?

CHAPTER II

SOME FAMOUS MEN OF TUDOR TIMES

Great Men. The Tudor kings and queens were great and powerful, and during the Tudor period there were many other great men—men of noble character, and men who did great things for their country, and who deserve to be remembered. This chapter contains accounts of some of them, and of the deeds for which they were famous; the careers of others, such as Drake, Wolsey, and Cromwell, have been described in other chapters of this book.

Sir Thomas More. Thomas More, as a boy, served for a year or two as a page in the palace of Cardinal Morton, Archbishop of Canterbury, who noticed the sweetness, gentleness, and kindliness of his character. Leaving the Archbishop, More went to Oxford. He was very religious, and for a time thought of becoming a priest. Instead of doing this he studied law and became a barrister.

Before he was twenty years old he became a friend of Erasmus, a Dutch scholar who had come to England. John Colet became a friend of both, and these three, with some others, were known as the Oxford Reformers. These men were keen students of Greek, and especially of the Greek New Testament, and they all saw that there was need of reform in the Church. But none of them became a Protestant; they were all sincere Catholics who wanted to do away with some of the evils which had appeared in the Church. Especially, they felt that some of the priests were not good men and that they ought to lead better lives.

More saw not only the evil in the Church but the evil in the country. He wrote a book about *Utopia*—a perfect country in which everybody was happy and nobody was either very rich or very poor, in which there were no slums and no crime, no hunting of wild animals and no war, and in which every child went to school and every man could worship God as he pleased. "Utopia" is simply the Greek word for "Nowhere." More described

Utopia as being the greater part of an island, the other part of which was cold and barren and inhabited by a rather barbaric race. From this and other signs it is clear that Utopia was meant to be England—not England as it was, but England as More would like it to be. The book was written in Latin, but afterwards it was translated into English and was read by many people.

When Cardinal Wolsey lost the favour of Henry VIII and was dismissed from the position of Lord Chancellor More was appointed to succeed him. He held this high office for only two or three years. He would not agree that the King was right in divorcing his first wife, Catherine of Aragon, and marrying Anne Boleyn, and he would not agree that the King could be Head of the Church instead of the Pope. He was accused of treason, sent to the Tower, and sentenced to be beheaded.

When he was brought out for execution the scaffold, which had been badly built, shook as he went up the steps. "See me safe up," he said to the officer in charge, "for my coming down I can manage for myself." The executioner seemed unwilling to go on with his work, and More said to him: "Pluck up thy spirit, man, and be not afraid to do thy duty." When he placed his head on the block he moved his beard aside, saying: "Pity this should be cut that hath not committed treason." So died one of the greatest Englishmen of his time.

William Tyndale. The story of Tyndale's life is soon told, but it must not be thought that he was unimportant. He was born in the west of England, and he studied for a time at both Oxford and Cambridge. He made many friends, most of whom were in favour of reform in the Church, of which he, too, felt the need.

Tyndale thought that if people could read the Gospels for themselves they would be able to live as Christ would have them live, and in this way true reform would come about. At that time (the earlier part of the reign of Henry VIII) there was no printed Bible in the English language, nor would men have been allowed to read it if they had had one. Tyndale wanted to translate the New Testament into English (from the original Greek). He hoped that the Bishop of London would give per-

mission for it to be translated and printed, but the Bishop refused. Tyndale found that he could not hope to get it printed in London when it was ready, and he left England.

He lived in Hamburg for some years, and there he made his translation and had it printed. Many thousands of copies, hidden in bales of cloth, were sent to England; some were seized by order of the Bishop of London, and burnt, but many more were kept secretly by the people who received them. Only two copies of Tyndale's New Testament are known to exist to-day; one of them is in St. Paul's Cathedral. Tyndale began, but did not live to complete, a translation of the Old Testament.

Tyndale afterwards moved to Antwerp, where after a year or two he was arrested as a heretic. After being kept in prison for some time he was sentenced to be burnt at the stake. At the last he was treated more mercifully than many others who were put to death for their religion, for he was strangled before the faggots were lit. He deserves to be remembered for his great work in giving the New Testament in their own language to the people of England. When, in the reign of James I, the translation of the Bible which is now in use was made, much of it was based on Tyndale's work.

John Fisher. Fisher was Bishop of Rochester in the reign of Henry VIII. He was a man of very holy life, who kept open house for the poor, large numbers of whom fed at his table every day. He saw the need for reform in the lives of the clergy, but he was against any change in the teaching of the Church.

Like Sir Thomas More, he would not admit that Henry was right in divorcing Catherine of Aragon and marrying Anne Boleyn, and he would not admit that Henry was Head of the Church instead of the Pope. He was imprisoned in the Tower, and the Pope made him a Cardinal. When the King was told that the Pope had sent Fisher a cardinal's hat he said: "Then he shall wear it on his shoulders." The Bishop was beheaded. His head was shown on London Bridge, and then was cast into the Thames. Fisher is regarded by the Roman Catholic Church as a martyr for his faith.

Thomas Cranmer. *Cranmer was a quiet, peace-loving scholar of the University of Cambridge, who, though a priest, had no wish for a high position in the Church. He was at supper one night with two friends who were well known at the court of Henry VIII, and they talked about the divorce which the King wanted but which at that time he had not obtained. Cranmer said that as the Pope had not given an answer the King might ask the universities of Europe what they thought about it, for the universities contained the most learned men in Europe. The two courtiers told the King what Cranmer had said, and Henry replied: "He has got the right sow by the ear." He sent for Cranmer, who wrote out a statement of the case which was sent to every university in western and central Europe. Those of Spain were against the divorce, but nearly all the others were in favour of it. The King made Cranmer Archbishop of Canterbury, though he did not want the position, and shortly afterwards the new Archbishop declared that Henry had never been properly married to Catherine of Aragon, so that he was free to marry Anne Boleyn.*

Cranmer became Archbishop before the Pope's power in England was finally overthrown. Though he was appointed as a Catholic Archbishop he became a reformer; yet he was never entirely Protestant. In 1539 he prepared a Bible in the English language; it was for the most part the translation of the New Testament made by Tyndale, with a translation of the Old Testament made by Miles Coverdale, Bishop of Exeter. It was known as the Great Bible, and the King ordered that a copy should be placed in every church, so that men who could read it should do so, while those who could not read might gather in church and listen to what was being read. The Bibles were valuable, and, lest they be stolen, it was ordered that they should be secured with chains.

When Henry died and Edward became King the Protector Somerset wanted Church services to be in English instead of in Latin, and Cranmer prepared the Book of Common Prayer. This was work which he loved. He translated the old prayers into English of so perfect and beautiful a style that it has never

been surpassed. *Though some small changes were made in later years, the Book of Common Prayer in use in the Church of England to-day is almost the same as that produced by Cranmer.*

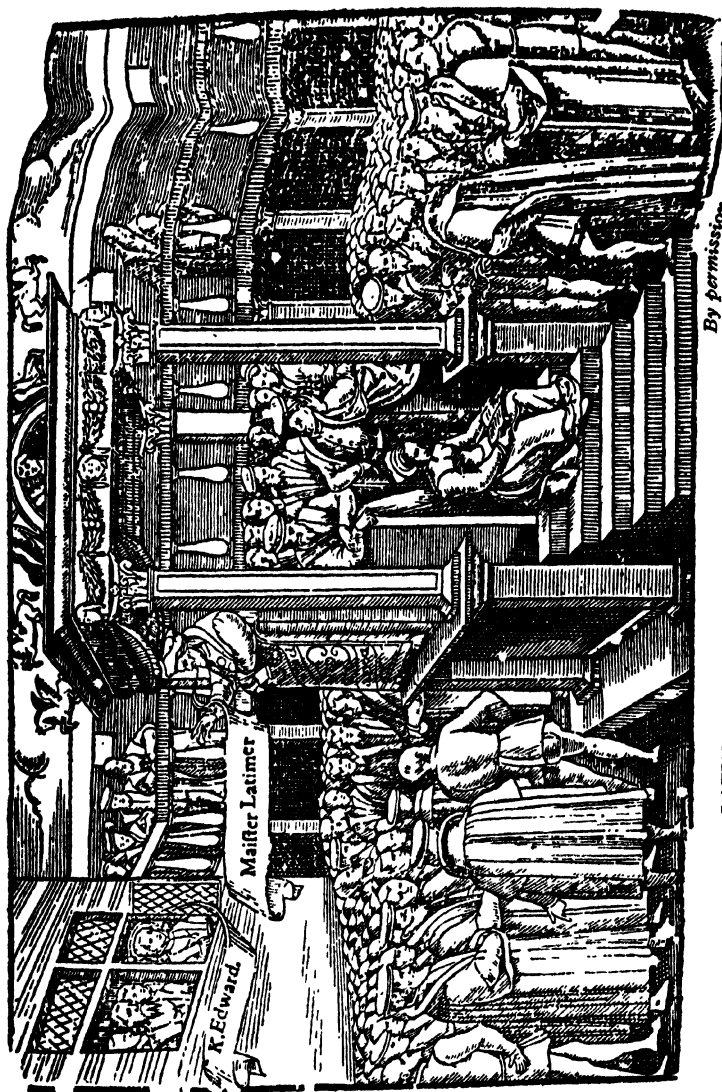
Mary became Queen in 1553. She was the daughter of Henry VIII and Catherine of Aragon, and she hated Cranmer not only because he was a reformer but because he had brought about her mother's divorce. The Archbishop was imprisoned, but for a time nothing more could be done, because he had been made Archbishop with the consent of a Pope, and only a Pope could depose him. At length the Pope did so, and Cranmer ceased to be Archbishop of Canterbury. He was sent to Oxford to be tried as a heretic. He was by nature timid, and he feared the fire. For this reason he recanted, that is, he declared that he had been wrong and that he was a Catholic. In spite of this he was sentenced to be burned, and then he recovered the courage that he had lost. He spoke to the people who had gathered to see him die, and said:

Now I come to the great thing that troubleth my conscience more than any other thing that ever I said or did in my life—the setting forth of writings contrary to the truth, which I now renounce and refuse as things written by my hand contrary to the truth in my heart, and written for fear of death to save my life. And as my hand offended in writing contrary to my heart, my hand shall be the first punished; for if I come to the fire it shall be the first burnt.

At the stake he held his hand to the flame without flinching. A man who knows no fear is not really so brave as the man who is full of fear and yet faces danger and pain. Cranmer was afraid of pain: yet in the end he met it bravely, and he deserves to be regarded as a hero and a martyr.

Hugh Latimer. Latimer was the son of a farmer in Leicestershire. In a very famous sermon which he preached before Edward VI he described his family and the way he was brought up, drawing attention at the same time to the great increase in the rent of land in the Tudor period.

My father was a yeoman, and he had a farm of three or four pound by year at the uttermost, and hereupon he tilled so much



By permission.
LATIMER PREACHING BEFORE EDWARD VI

as kept half a dozen men. He kept me to school, or else I had not been able to have preached before the King's majesty now. He married my sisters with five pound a piece, so that he brought them up in godliness and fear of God. He kept hospitality for his poor neighbours, and some alms he gave to the poor. And all this he did of the said farm, where he that now hath it payeth sixteen pound by year, or more, and is not able to do anything for his prince, for himself, nor for his children, or give a cup of drink to the poor.

Hugh Latimer studied at Cambridge and became a priest, and afterwards Bishop of Worcester. He soon became a reformer; he was a bold preacher, and some of the bishops wished to put him down and punish him. They could not do so because Henry VIII admired him and protected him. When Henry had a law passed under which men who did not believe in certain Catholic doctrines might be put to death, Latimer resigned his bishopric. He stood boldly for what he regarded as the truth, not caring what might happen to him. When Henry's son Edward was born Latimer dared to ask the King to have the young prince brought up as a Protestant. The King, who with all his faults was a great man, knew that Latimer was one of the best and greatest men of the time, and what he would have punished in another man he overlooked in Latimer.

But Mary had no mercy on him. He was one of the reformers, and she ordered his arrest. He was condemned to be burned at the stake with Ridley, who had been Bishop of London. They were taken to Oxford to be put to death, and at the stake Latimer called out: "Be of good cheer, Master Ridley, for by God's grace we shall this day light such a candle in England as shall never be put out."

Reginald Pole. Pole was an English priest of noble birth in the time of Henry VIII. He saw that some reform was needed in the Church, but he did not become a Protestant, and he did not want the Pope's power to be destroyed. When Henry made himself Head of the Church Pole left England. He lived in Rome for many years and became a cardinal.

After Mary became Queen Pole returned to England as papal

legate, and he succeeded Cranmer as Archbishop of Canterbury. Like Mary, he wished to stamp out Protestantism by burning Protestants. On the day after Mary's death Pole also died.

William Cecil, Lord Burleigh. Cecil was the son of a country gentleman of Lincolnshire, and was educated at Cambridge. He studied law and became a barrister. In spite of the religious changes of the time he served Edward VI and Mary as well as Elizabeth, under whom he held the office of Secretary of State for forty years—from 1558 till his death in 1598. His great quality was his faithfulness. "I know that you will not be corrupted with any gift, and that you will be faithful to the State," said the Queen. Throughout her reign she relied on his advice in the many matters with which she had to deal, and more than once, when his enemies pretended that he was secretly plotting against her, she refused to believe them and turned against them in anger. There are no great events to describe in his life; it is a record of long and faithful service.

Sir Philip Sidney. Sidney was one of the gentlemen of Elizabeth's court, but he was far superior to many of the others by reason of his charm of manner. He was upright and honest in his life, and, unlike many others, did not push himself forward to gain the Queen's notice. Perhaps it was for this reason that he became a great favourite of Elizabeth.

In 1585 an English army was sent over to Holland to help the Dutch, who were in revolt against Spain. The army was commanded by the Earl of Leicester, who was Sidney's uncle, and Sidney was made Governor of the port of Flushing. He made a surprise attack on Axel and captured it, but in another fight at Zutphen he was badly wounded in the thigh. While he lay in pain he was offered a drink of water, but he refused it, saying to a soldier who, also badly wounded, lay near him: "Thy need is greater than mine." His wound could not be healed, and he died a few days later, deeply mourned by the Queen and all who knew him.

Every gentleman at Elizabeth's court was a poet, or, at least,

tried to write poetry. Sidney wrote a *series of sonnets for which* he would have been remembered even if he had not been famous for any other reason.



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SIR PHILIP SIDNEY AT ZUTPHEN

Robert Dudley, Earl of Leicester. Robert Dudley was a son of John Dudley, Duke of Northumberland, and took part in his father's plot to make Lady Jane Grey Queen. For this he was imprisoned in the Tower, but a year later he was set free, and served Mary by acting as a messenger between her and her husband, Philip II, King of Spain.

When Elizabeth became Queen he soon became her favourite, *on account of his gay and witty character and his skill in flattering her.* For some years he even hoped to marry her, though it does not seem likely that she ever thought seriously of marrying him. Elizabeth proposed that he should marry Mary, Queen of Scots, and she made him Earl of Leicester, but Mary was not willing.

The Earl remained in high favour with Elizabeth for many years, and in 1585 he was given command of the army which she sent into Holland to help the Dutch against Spain. His conduct in the Netherlands displeased the Queen, and he was soon recalled. Yet he was given command of the English army at Tilbury at the time of the Spanish Armada. It was a bad appointment, for Dudley was not a good general, and perhaps it was fortunate for England that he never had to lead his troops into battle. Dudley died in the same year, deeply mourned by the Queen, but by nobody else. He was greedy and selfish, and did not deserve the favours that had been heaped upon him.

Sir Walter Raleigh. Raleigh was a man of Devon who, after studying at Oxford, went to France and fought on the side of the Huguenots (the French Protestants) against the Catholics. While still young he went on more than one voyage of piracy in the Spanish Main, and in 1580 he fought in Ireland against the Desmonds, who were in rebellion. He soon became one of Queen Elizabeth's favourites, and many tales which may or may not be true are told of him. It is said that he first came under the Queen's notice by casting his cloak over a muddy place on the path on which she was walking. He is said also to have composed verses in honour of Elizabeth and to have scratched them, with a diamond, on a window-pane where the Queen could not fail to see them. Such actions pleased her, and she made Raleigh a knight and gave him some of the lands in Ireland which the Desmonds had forfeited. There he introduced the tobacco plant and the potato.

With the Queen's permission Raleigh made two attempts, in 1585 and 1587, to found a colony in Virginia. He did not visit Virginia himself and, though he spent £40,000 in order to give

the colony a good start, it was a failure. The story of the colony and the reasons for its failure are given in another chapter.

In 1595 Raleigh visited the river Orinoco, in South America, in search of a rich country, Eldorado, of which he had been told.



THE BOYHOOD OF SIR WALTER RALEIGH

He believed that great quantities of gold were to be obtained there, but he found neither Eldorado nor the gold.

Early in the reign of James I Raleigh was accused of plotting against the King and was sentenced to death. The sentence was not carried out at that time; Raleigh was imprisoned in the Tower, where he wrote a *History of the World*. He still thought much about the Orinoco, and he offered to lead an expedition to find Manoa, the city of gold in Eldorado. James needed money very badly, and in 1617 he allowed Raleigh to go

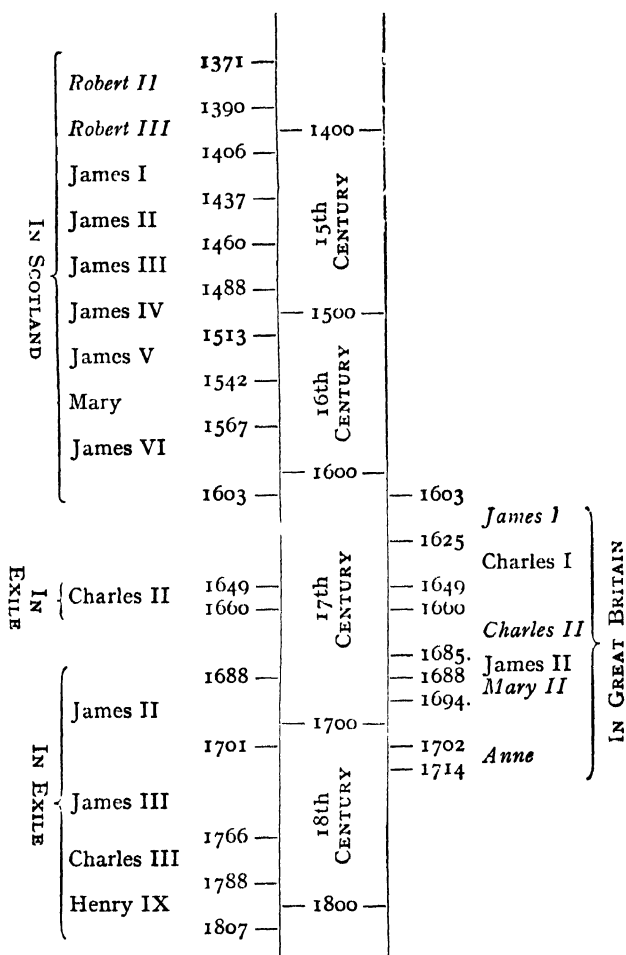
to South America in command of a fleet of fourteen ships, but he ordered him not to fight the Spaniards. There was now on the Orinoco a Spanish settlement, San Thomé, which had not existed when Raleigh sailed up the river in 1595. On this occasion Raleigh stayed with most of his ships at the mouth of the river, and sent Keymis, one of his officers, to look for Manoa. Keymis attacked and captured San Thomé, but he did not find the city of gold. He returned to the mouth of the river, and when Raleigh blamed him for disobeying orders in fighting the Spaniards he committed suicide. The expedition was a failure, and Raleigh now thought of seeking out and capturing a Spanish treasure ship; perhaps he thought that, as the Spanish had been attacked once, a second attack would not make things any worse for him, while he might be better received by the King if he came back with a load of gold than if his ships returned empty. But his men were mutinous, and he had to sail for England without carrying out his plan. On reaching England he was again arrested and sent to the Tower. The Spanish ambassador wanted him to be given up as a pirate. To surrender Raleigh would make the King very unpopular, and in 1618 he ordered him to be put to death under the old sentence of 1604.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Who were the Oxford Reformers? What do you know about them?
2. Name three men who translated the Bible or parts of the Bible into English.
3. Choose from this chapter three men whom you admire most, and state why you think they are worthy to be honoured.
4. Write three or four lines about each of the following: Utopia, Latimer's father, Eldorado, chained Bibles.

TIME CHART

THE STUARTS



Only those kings and queens whose names are in italics died in peaceful possession of their thrones.

CHAPTER 12

THE EARLY STUARTS

James I 1603-25

Charles I 1625-49

The House of Stuart. Kings of the House of Stuart had reigned in Scotland for more than two hundred years before the Scottish James VI became James I of England. They were a most unlucky line of kings; from beginning to end of their history (1371-1807) there were seventeen kings and queens of the Stuart family (including the exiled "pretenders"), and only six of them died a natural death in peaceful possession of their thrones.

The Divine Right of Kings. The Stuart kings believed in the Divine Right of Kings. They thought that God had appointed them to rule the country, that they had the right to rule as they wished, and that they were above the law. Nobody had a right to rebel against the King, because rebellion against the King would be going against the will of God, and would be sinful. Many English people believed in the Divine Right of Kings, and would fight for the King if called upon to do so, but others thought that law, which was made by Parliament, was more important than the King; such people thought it wrong for the King to be above the law, and they were ready to fight against him, if necessary. The struggle between these two parties led to a Stuart king losing his head, and, forty years later, to another Stuart king being turned off the throne.

All this talk about Divine Right does not seem very important to people of the present day, when no King of England would claim it, but it should be remembered that the Stuart kings really did believe in it. When they did things that now seem to be stupid or harsh they thought they were acting rightly, and in fairness to them this should be kept in mind.

The Stuarts were not the only kings who believed in the Divine

Right of Kings. Many other lines of kings, in other countries of Europe, believed in it also. Very likely the Tudors had the same ideas. Yet the Tudors never had to fight a civil war against a large part of their people, as happened to Charles I. Perhaps this was because the Tudors did not talk about Divine Right, though they acted as if they had it; the Stuarts, especially James I and Charles I, often talked about it, and this made many people think about it—and made some of them doubt it.

Stuart Kings. The four Stuart kings in England from 1603 to 1688 have been described as "a knave and three fools." The knave was Charles II; the others, therefore, were the fools. The description is unkind, and perhaps unjust, to all four. It will be interesting to try to find out whether the Stuart kings deserved it or whether they tried to do their best for their country in the way that they thought to be right.

James I. James I was nearly thirty-seven years old when he succeeded Elizabeth. He had already been King, as James VI, in Scotland for thirty-six years, for he was barely a year old when he succeeded his mother, Mary Queen of Scots. He was well educated; he learned to speak several languages; he knew a good deal of history; and he studied science as it was known in his day. Like other people of his time he firmly believed in witchcraft.

James was fond of hunting, and was a very good rider; it is said that he sometimes rode for six hours at a stretch. (If so, he must have changed horses two or three times.) It has been said that he was a coward, and that he could not bear the sight of a drawn sword. But even if he disliked swords drawn in his presence this did not make him a coward. No man who, like James, often risked breaking his limbs and even his neck in hard riding ought to be described as a coward.

Henry IV, King of France at this time, said of James that he was "the wisest fool in Christendom." By this, Henry probably meant that, in spite of his learning, which ought to have made him wise, James was foolish in the way he ruled his country. It remains to be seen how far this was true.

James had been brought up as a Presbyterian in Scotland. The ministers of the Kirk (the Presbyterian Church) used to say very harsh things in their sermons, even about the King;



National Portrait Gallery

JAMES I AS A BOY

one of them told James that he was "God's silly vassal." When he became King of England the English bishops and clergy looked up to him as Head of the Church of England, and it is not surprising that he preferred a church of which he was the Head to one in which he was insulted. In England, besides the Church of England, there were Puritans and Roman Catholics, and both these groups hoped that the new King would treat them better than Elizabeth had done—the Puritans because James had been brought up as a Presbyterian, and the Roman Catholics because they had suffered under Elizabeth for plotting on behalf of

Mary Stuart, James's mother. James favoured neither Puritans nor Roman Catholics, but he was not inclined to persecute them. Though he said some harsh things against the Puritans he did not act harshly towards them, and if severe laws were passed against Roman Catholics this was only to be expected after the Gunpowder Plot. So far as James was concerned, he thought

that faith in God was the important thing, and he did not wish to punish men for their religious beliefs.

Some Roman Catholic gentlemen plotted to blow up the Houses of Parliament with gunpowder when the King opened Parliament in 1605. The plot was arranged by Robert Catesby, and there were about a dozen other men in it. They hired a



THE GUNPOWDER CONSPIRATORS

cellar under the Houses of Parliament in order, as they said, to store coal and wood in it. Secretly, and by night, they hid thirty-six barrels of gunpowder under the coal and the faggots. When the members of Parliament (Lords and Commons) were gathered together to hear a speech from the King one of the plotters would light a slow-match, so that, after he had escaped from the cellar, the gunpowder would explode. The Houses of Parliament would be blown up, and the King and all the Lords and Commons would be killed.

The plotters intended to make James's little daughter, the Princess Elizabeth, Queen. She would be brought up as a Roman Catholic, and under "Elizabeth II" the work of Elizabeth I would be undone and England would become Roman Catholic once more.

The plot failed. It failed because when many people share a

secret it cannot remain a secret for long. Parliament was to meet on 5th November, 1605, and a few days before its meeting one of the plotters, Francis Tresham, wrote to his brother-in-law, Lord Monteagle, warning him not to go to Westminster because "they shall receive a terrible blow this Parliament and yet they shall not see who hurts them." Monteagle thought this to be a very strange letter, and he showed it to one of the King's ministers. They decided to have the cellar searched, and when this was done the gunpowder was found there. One of the plotters, Guy Fawkes, who was on guard in the cellar, was arrested.

When Catesby heard that the plot had been discovered he and some of the others fled from London. They were pursued, and were overtaken and surrounded at Holbeach House, in Staffordshire. Catesby and three of his friends were killed in the fight; others were taken to the Tower, where they, with Fawkes, were put to death.

After the Gunpowder Plot most Englishmen distrusted the Roman Catholics. They were looked upon as wicked people who would commit any crime, and they were often blamed for events such as the Great Fire of London, of which they were innocent. This was unfair, for the Gunpowder Plot was the work of only a few men, and most of the Roman Catholics had nothing to do with it.

James was King of England and King of Scotland, but England and Scotland were still separate countries. He thought it would be a very good thing to unite the two kingdoms and make them one. He took the title of King of Great Britain, but neither the English Parliament nor the Scottish Parliament would agree to a union of the two countries. The union did not come until a hundred years later, and it has been good for both countries. In this matter there cannot be any doubt that James was wiser than his people.

Abroad, at this time, it seemed likely that a great war of religion would break out, a war between Catholic and Protestant powers. For many years James did his best to prevent war from happening at all. He married his daughter Elizabeth to the Elector Palatine, a powerful Protestant prince in Germany, and

he tried to arrange a marriage between his son Charles, Prince of Wales, and a Spanish princess, who, of course, was a Catholic. He thought that in this way he would gain influence with both Catholics and Protestants in Europe, and so might be able to prevent the outbreak of war. He failed. The war began in 1618, and lasted till 1648; it is known as the Thirty Years War and it was fought mainly in Germany. James ought not to be blamed for trying to prevent a war which in the end destroyed two-thirds of the people of Germany and turned large parts of that country into wilderness.

James was not much liked in England. English people expected their king to be dignified, and James was ungainly, with such weak legs and ankles that he commonly walked with his hand on another man's shoulder. It is said that his tongue was too large for his mouth and that he never troubled to wash his hands. He spoke with a Scottish accent, and Englishmen were displeased at the number of Scots at his court.

In the last few years of his reign James became even less popular than he had been. He was very much under the influence of his favourite, George Villiers, whom he made Duke of Buckingham. Buckingham was disliked by other nobles and by the common people, but he was not so bad as his enemies made out. The English people hated the proposed marriage of the Prince of Wales to a Spanish princess. The Prince and Buckingham visited Spain, but the marriage did not take place, and people were delighted when Charles returned to England unmarried. To please the King of Spain James had Sir Walter Raleigh put to death in 1618; this was the worst thing he ever did.

In spite of his faults it can be said of James I that he was more tolerant in religion than his people were, that he saw that a union of England and Scotland would be for the good of his people, and that he did his best to prevent one of the worst wars in modern history. Not a bad record for a "fool"!

Charles I. Charles I possessed the dignity that his father lacked, He was a very religious man, and, like his father, he believed very

firmly in his Divine Right to rule both Church and State. He married not a Spanish but a French princess, Henrietta Maria; the Queen was a Roman Catholic, and for that reason was not liked by the people. Charles was very much in love with her, and he was always ready to listen to her advice. Like his father, he was very friendly with the Duke of Buckingham, who, however, was murdered in 1628.

A quarrel between King and Parliament which had begun in the reign of James I was continued in that of his son and led to civil war and to the King's execution. The story of that quarrel is told elsewhere; in this chapter it will be sufficient to mention why the quarrel happened and what resulted from it. Not all the people of England were against the King. He was sincerely attached to the Church of England, and those people who, like him, wanted the Church to remain unchanged and who, in addition, believed in the Divine Right of Kings supported him. The Puritans, on the other hand, who were numerous in Parliament, would not admit the King's Divine Right, and they wanted changes in the Church; some of them wanted the bishops to be abolished, so that the Church of England would become like the Presbyterian Kirk in Scotland.

For a period of eleven years in the middle of his reign Charles ruled without a Parliament. For the English people this was the happiest and most peaceful part of his reign. The King had no army other than a few guards, and if there had been a rebellion it is hard to say how he could have put it down. There was no rebellion at that time, and as the people were certainly not kept down by force it seems that most of them were contented with his rule.

In 1640 his Scottish subjects rebelled against him, and invaded England, because he tried to make some changes in the Kirk, and Charles called a Parliament which is known as the Long Parliament. He did this because he was in great need of money, and hoped that Parliament would grant him some. But in the Long Parliament there were many Puritans who thought the Scots were right in resisting the King, and they ordered the death of his greatest friend, the Earl of Strafford. Charles had promised

Strafford that "on my royal word they shall not harm a hair of your head." Yet he signed the Bill under which Strafford was to be executed. It was the worst thing that he ever did.

He came to an agreement with the Scots, and then he resolved to get rid of the Long Parliament. He called upon his loyal subjects to meet him at Nottingham, and was soon at the head of an army with which he marched towards London. But Parliament also raised an army, and a civil war—the Great Rebellion—followed, in which the King was defeated and became a prisoner.

The parliamentary army, known as the New Model, under its leaders Fairfax and Cromwell, did not at this time want to put him to death, or even to depose him. While he was a captive they offered to restore him to the throne on certain conditions. But Charles tried, at different times, to bargain with the Parliament and with the Scots, as well as with the army, in order to get the best terms possible. At length he made an agreement with the Scots, who undertook to fight for him and put him back on the throne if he would establish Presbyterianism in England for the next three years.

The second Civil War followed in 1648. A Scottish army invaded England and the royalists took up arms again. The New Model army was more than a match for this new outbreak. Scots and royalists were hopelessly defeated, and Charles, no longer described as the King but as "that man of blood," was brought to trial for the bloodshed of the second Civil War and was sentenced to death.

Before he was put to death Charles was allowed to see his young son Henry, Duke of Gloucester; his elder sons, Charles and James, had fled abroad. The King thought that the soldiers might put Henry on the throne, and he said to the child: "They will try to make thee King. But mark well what I do say. Thou must not be King while thy brothers Charles and James do live." The prince answered: "I will be cut in pieces first." This answer pleased the King, for by the principle of Divine Right a king should always be followed by his eldest son before any younger son could succeed.

On the day of his execution the King walked firmly and without showing any sign of fear to the place where he was to die.

He nothing common did nor mean
Upon that memorable scene.

Walking with him was his faithful friend, William Juxon, Bishop of London. A large crowd was gathered before the palace of Whitehall, not to call for his death, but in deep sorrow. When the axe fell, no cheers, but only groans, were heard.

In a way it may be said that Charles I brought his ill fate upon himself. If at various times in his reign he had been willing to give way to his opponents, if he had always done what other people wanted, he would have had an easier reign, and he would have died in his bed. But he could have given way to others only by abandoning principles in which he believed strongly. He considered himself to be King by Divine Right, and he thought that it was his duty to God not to rule as his enemies wanted him to rule. And he thought it his duty to uphold the Church of England and not to make the changes in it that the Puritans wanted. If he had yielded on these things he would have acted against his conscience; he might have been a wiser king, but he would certainly have been a worse man. There are to this day many people who look upon Charles as a martyr in that he came to his death by doing what he thought was right.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. What was meant by the Divine Right of Kings? What would be the duty of (a) the king, and (b) the people?
2. Write (a) three good things about James I, and (b) three things for which he was to be blamed.
3. Why was Charles I brought to trial and sentenced to death?
4. What happened at these places: Nottingham, Whitehall, Holbeach House?

CHAPTER 13

STUART KINGS AND THEIR PARLIAMENTS

Parliament to-day. At the present time Parliament is the most important body in this country. It consists of King, House of Lords, and House of Commons. Of these, the House of Commons is more important than the House of Lords because it contains members who are chosen by the people. During a great part of the year the House of Commons meets every day (except on Saturdays and Sundays), and though it has a holiday of a few weeks now and then it can always be called together again if it is needed. When Parliament is dissolved a new House of Commons is elected, so that the country is never long without a Parliament.

Early Parliaments. There had been Parliaments in England for nearly four hundred years before the Stuart period, but they did not meet all the time. A Parliament was called only when the King wished for it, and often it lasted only a few weeks and was then dissolved. And there were sometimes long periods during which no Parliament met.

As Parliament met so rarely it is clear that it could not rule the country. England, in fact, was ruled by the King or Queen, and not by Parliament. But Parliament could do two things which the King by himself could not do; it could make a law and it could levy a tax. If the King wanted a new law passed, or if he was short of money and wanted a new tax to be collected, he would call a Parliament and ask it for what he wanted. When the law was passed or the tax was granted, Parliament would be dissolved, and its members would go home.

When a Parliament met it sometimes complained to the King about the way the country was ruled, or about his ministers, or about things that the members wanted to be changed. As the King always wanted something from Parliament, he would, if

he were wise, attend to these complaints. He might promise to make the changes asked for by Parliament; if he refused, Parliament in its turn might refuse to grant him the money he needed, and a quarrel between King and Parliament would follow. In that case the King would certainly dissolve Parliament.

Tudor Parliaments. There was very little trouble between King and Parliament in the Tudor period, because on the whole the nation trusted the King and agreed with the way he ruled the country. English people were glad that Henry VII destroyed the power of the nobles. They did not like the power of the Pope in England, and they did not mind Henry VIII making himself Head of the Church. In Elizabeth's reign the people knew of the danger from Spain and did not wish to quarrel with the Queen; they trusted her to lead the nation to victory. During the Tudor period Parliament did not quarrel with the King or Queen because there was nothing much to quarrel about.

Stuart Parliaments. Things were very different after James I became King. There was no longer any danger from Spain, and people could think about affairs at home. On many matters the first two Stuart kings and their Parliaments did not agree. Some of the members of Parliament wanted it to have a share in ruling the country, but the Kings would not agree to this. They thought that in past times the country had been ruled by its kings, and they saw no reason for a change; besides, they thought, and said, that they had a Divine Right to rule, and they would be failing in their duty to God if they let the people rule.

For a time the Kings (James I and Charles I) were bound to win in this contest with their Parliaments. The struggle was something like a duel between two men, one of whom had a magic sword; if his enemy pressed him hard he had only to touch a button in the handle of his sword to make his enemy vanish completely, and he was safe. The King had a magic weapon; if a dispute between him and his Parliament could not be settled easily he could dissolve Parliament. The King was left, but Parliament no longer existed. It was not until Parliament

gained the right to meet all the time (as it does to-day) that it had any chance of winning in its struggle with the King.

The King's Ministers. Much of the trouble in the reign of James I was about money. The King found that his income was not large enough for the government of the country, and he sometimes had to ask Parliament for more money. Parliament did not like this, and thought that money was being wasted by the King. They did not exactly say this, but they put the blame on the King's ministers. They complained that the ministers were not doing their work well, and they wanted the King to change his ministers. They wished him to appoint ministers whom they liked rather than whom he liked. But the King thought that it was his right and not Parliament's to choose his ministers, and he would not dismiss his friends to please a Parliament that always seemed to be finding fault. Before the end of James's reign Parliament found a way of getting rid of ministers whom it disliked. It impeached them. An impeachment was a trial in which the House of Lords tried a person who was accused by the House of Commons. Bacon, the Lord Chancellor, was impeached in 1621 for taking bribes, and was heavily punished. In 1624 the Lord High Treasurer, the Earl of Middlesex, was impeached for stealing some of the nation's money. In 1626 the Duke of Buckingham, Lord High Admiral, was impeached, but this time Charles I used his magic sword; he dissolved Parliament in order to save Buckingham.

Religion. Many members of Parliament in the reigns of James I and Charles I were Puritan, and wanted changes in the Church. Neither King was willing to make changes to please the Puritans; besides, they thought it was their right as Head of the Church to rule the Church and that Parliament had no right in the matter at all.

Charles I and his Parliaments. Charles I had three Parliaments in the first four years of his reign. They disagreed with him on so many things that when he dissolved his third Parliament in

1629 he made up his mind never to call another Parliament. For eleven years—from 1629 to 1640—Charles ruled England without a Parliament, and there seemed no reason why he should ever call one to meet again. So long as he had enough money to rule the country he could do without Parliament, and he would have enough, or almost enough, so long as no war broke out. Wars cost a great deal of money, and if Charles went to war he would have to call a Parliament. Therefore he resolved not to go to war.

But a war came to him. He, with Archbishop Laud, tried to make some changes in the Church of Scotland. These changes were hated by the Scots, who revolted against him. They invaded England and conquered Northumberland and Durham. A truce was then made, and the King was forced to promise to pay them £850 per day. There was only one source from which he could obtain the money—from a Parliament. Before the Scottish invasion he had called, and dissolved, a Parliament, which is known as the Short Parliament. He now called a Parliament which was not finally dissolved for twenty years and is known as the Long Parliament.

The Long Parliament. Charles was cornered at last. With an enemy encamped in the north of England he must have money. He could not dissolve Parliament, or, if he did, he must summon another, which would contain the same members; only from a Parliament could he hope to obtain money. If the Long Parliament granted him the money he wanted he would certainly dissolve it at once; therefore it refused to grant him anything at all until he had agreed to what it wanted. Two of the King's ministers, the Earl of Strafford and Archbishop Laud, were impeached; Strafford was beheaded, and Laud was left in the Tower. An act was passed stating that the Parliament could not be dissolved without its consent, and another act declared that in future a Parliament was to meet at least once in three years. (The King's magic sword would not work so well in future!) Other acts were passed, and the King agreed to them all in the hope of getting a grant of money. Many of the

Puritans in the Long Parliament wanted to abolish the bishops in the Church of England and make the Church Presbyterian, like the Church of Scotland, but so many members were against this that it could not be done.

While these things were going on Charles visited Scotland and agreed to everything the Scots wanted, and their army left England. His need for money was now not so great, and he hoped to get rid of the Long Parliament. Before he returned to London Parliament drew up a Grand Remonstrance, a list of all the things it did not like which had happened since the beginning of the reign. But by this time many members—those who were not Puritan—had come round to the side of the King, and nearly as many voted against the Grand Remonstrance as for it. It was passed by a majority of only eleven votes. "Had it not been passed," said Oliver Cromwell, "I would have sold all that I have and left England for ever."

While the King was in Scotland he was told that five members of the House of Commons had been plotting with the Scottish rebels against him. This was treason, and Charles resolved that the members should be punished. But he acted most unwisely. With some of his guards he went to the House of Commons to arrest them himself. A King has no right to enter the House of Commons, but Charles entered it. The members rose to their feet as the King walked up to the Speaker and asked if the men he wanted were present. The Speaker replied: "May it please your Majesty, I have eyes to see only what the House tells me to see." "Ah, well, my eyes are as good as another's," said the King. "I see the birds are flown." He ordered that when they returned they were to be sent to him, and he left the House. The members were very angry at the King's action.

Charles was resolved to bring the Parliament to an end. He could not dissolve it in the ordinary way because of the Act by which it could not be dissolved without its own consent. He must use force. He left London, intending to gather troops and return to dissolve Parliament by force. He did not intend, and he did not expect, to begin a civil war. But a civil war began.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Mention three things about which the first two Stuart kings and their Parliaments could not agree.
2. Why was the King sure to win in any quarrel with Parliament in the early part of the Stuart period?
3. Why did Charles I call the Long Parliament, and why did he not dissolve it when he found that it was opposed to him?
4. Why did Charles I try to arrest five members of the House of Commons?

CHAPTER 14

THE GREAT REBELLION

King and Parliament. In 1642 the King called upon his loyal subjects to meet him at Nottingham. Most of the Lords and nearly half the Commons joined him, and so did many country



Edward H. Gooch

CHARLES I RAISING HIS STANDARD AT NOTTINGHAM

gentlemen with their servants. He soon had an army, a large part of which was mounted. He probably thought that he would be able to march straight to London and dissolve Parliament and punish its leaders. Parliament, which from this time did not contain anything like its full number of members, was supported by the people of London and the south-eastern counties, and it also raised forces. It did not expect to depose

the King, still less to put him to death. It probably hoped to be able to hold out for a time until he should be willing to come to an agreement with it. Neither side expected a war that would last for four years.

1642. The King very nearly won. But he did not win. He began his march towards London, and at Edgehill he defeated the parliamentary troops commanded by the Earl of Essex. The Battle of Edgehill is sometimes said to have been indecisive (that is, a draw), but it was not. Essex wanted to stop the King's progress to London, but after the battle the King continued his march. He reached Brentford, in Middlesex, but at Turnham Green some earthworks had been thrown up by the London train-bands—a force something like the Territorials of a few years ago, consisting of men who did their ordinary work day by day but did some drilling and shooting in their spare time. This was Charles's greatest chance. Had he attacked the train-bands he would most likely have defeated them, ridden in triumph into London, dissolved Parliament, and ruled again without a Parliament. He hesitated. A firm friend at his side would have advised attack, but the friend he now needed had lost his head in the Tower a year earlier. Charles decided not to attack, and he went to Oxford for the winter. He never had so good a chance again. Shakespeare wrote:

There is a tide in the affairs of men
Which, taken at the flood, leads on to fortune;
Omitted, all the voyage of their life
Is bound in shallows and in miseries.
And we must take the current when it serves
Or lose our ventures.

Charles failed to "take the current when it served," and the rest of his life was "bound in shallows and in miseries."

1643. The King hoped in 1643 to attack London with armies drawn from different parts of the country. There was fighting in the north, in the west, and in the south-west. The royal armies failed to draw near London, though much of the fighting went in the King's favour. His nephew, Prince Rupert, com-

manded his cavalry and led charges which scattered the parliamentary foot-soldiers. By the end of the year Charles seemed still to have a good chance of beating his enemies.



A PIKEMAN



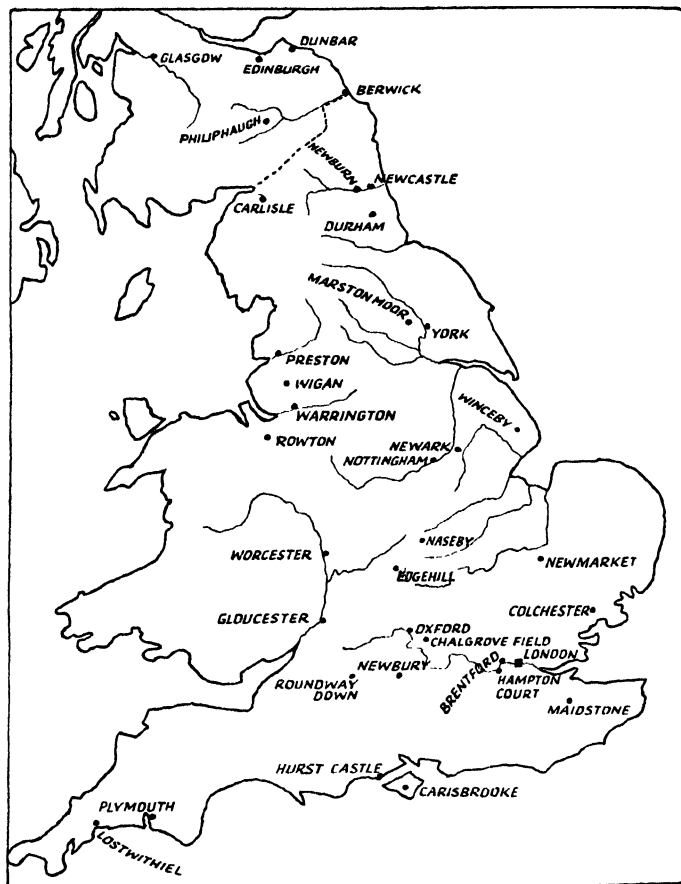
A MUSKETEER

From *Everyday Things in England*, by Marjorie and C. H. B. Quennell

The Scots. By this time the parliamentary leaders saw that the struggle would be hard and long, and during the winter of 1643-4 they made a treaty—the Solemn League and Covenant—with the Scots. The Scots were to send an army of 20,000 men into England to fight against the King, and in return Parliament promised to abolish the bishops and make the Church of England Presbyterian.

The Ironsides. One of the members of Parliament, Oliver Cromwell, thought that the King was winning because his troops were better than those of Parliament. He wrote:

Our troopers are most of them old decayed serving-men, and



THE GREAT REBELLION

tapsters, and such kind of fellows, and their troopers are gentle men's sons, younger sons, and persons of quality; do you think that the spirits of such mean and base fellows will ever be able to encounter gentlemen, that have honour and courage and resolution in them? You must get men of a spirit that is likely to go on as far as gentlemen will go, or else I am sure you will be beaten still.

But where were such men to be found? Cromwell thought that men would fight hard for their religion, and he enlisted a body of horsemen, every one of whom was a Puritan. These men were the Ironsides. They were very well paid, receiving half a crown a day. Cromwell drilled them and trained them hard, and they spent their spare time in prayer and Bible-reading and in the singing of psalms. No dicing or drunkenness or swearing was allowed. "They are a lovely lot," said Cromwell. "Not a man swears but he pays his twelve pence, and if he be drunk he is set in the stocks, or worse." By the spring of 1644 the Ironsides were ready to take their part in the war.

Marston Moor. The great battle of 1644 was the Battle of Marston Moor in Yorkshire. The Scots were besieging York, and Rupert advanced to its relief. The siege was raised, but Ironsides and Scots met the Prince at Marston Moor. The Ironsides charged, and scattered Rupert's forces. This was the most important battle in the war, so far. York and the north of England were lost to the King.

The New Model. Cromwell's system of enlisting men of religion was now extended to the whole parliamentary army. A New Model Army, of horse, foot, and artillery, was raised and trained. The Ironsides became the cavalry branch of the New Model. The men were put into uniform, their coats being red, and it is for this reason that British soldiers were known as Red-coats until the end of the nineteenth century. Until the time of the New Model Army it was not usual for English soldiers to be in uniform. There had been no standing army; men were called from their ordinary work when they were wanted to fight, and they went in their ordinary clothes. Sir Thomas Fairfax was the General of the New Model Army, and Cromwell, who still commanded the Ironsides, was the Lieutenant-General.

Naseby. At Naseby, in 1645, the New Model Army completely defeated the King, and the war drew to a close. Charles tried to make his way to Scotland, but he was defeated again. During

1646 the New Model Army made itself master of every part of the country, even Oxford surrendering to it. The King at length rode into the Scottish camp at Newark.

Why the King failed. It is not hard to see why the King failed. In the first place, it was his own fault; he might have won in 1642, but he missed his chance. His troops were bravely led by Rupert, but Rupert was rash; when he charged against one part of the enemy in a battle he would pursue so far that when he returned he sometimes found that in the other part of the field the battle had been lost. The parliamentary victory would not have been won without the New Model Army, but the King's defeat was also due to the navy. Most of the ships of the fleet declared for Parliament; if the navy had remained loyal to the King it could have blockaded London and prevented merchant ships from sailing up the Thames. The trade of London would have been stopped, and Parliament would have had to submit.

The King and the Scots. When the King rode into the Scottish camp at Newark he had no thought of giving himself up as a prisoner. He hoped that the Scots would change sides and fight for him against the New Model, and so put him back on the throne. He was a Scot, and he was King of Scotland. Surely the Scots, remembering Wallace and Bruce and many other heroes who had fought against the English, would not be so base as to give him up to the English! They were uneasy about it, and they offered to fight for him if he would turn Presbyterian and make the Church of England Presbyterian. This he would not do, and they turned to Parliament. They asked for the pay that was due to them—a sum of £400,000—and they received the money. They then handed the King over as a prisoner to Parliament, and returned to Scotland—"to see if their hills were high enough to hide their shame"!

The King and the Army. The rest of the tale is soon told. Charles was a captive, but he was treated with great respect.

The New Model Army quarrelled with Parliament and resolved to take charge of him from Parliament. A troop of Ironsides under Cornet Joyce visited Holmby House, where the King was living. (A cornet was a cavalry officer.) Joyce told the King



Edward H. Gough

CHARLES I AND CORNET JOYCE AT HOLMBY HOUSE

he must come with him. "Where is your commission?" said Charles. The Cornet pointed to his men. The King laughed and said: "It is written in fair and legible characters." But he refused to go with Joyce unless he would promise not to force him to do anything against his conscience. "It is not our practice to force any man to act against his conscience, *least of all our King*," was the reply.

Charles was taken to Newmarket, and was soon moved to Hampton Court. While he was there the army offered to restore him to the throne on certain conditions, which were not at all hard. Charles, by refusing them, threw away his best chance of recovering his throne.

The King and the Scots. He escaped from Hampton Court and reached Carisbrooke Castle in the Isle of Wight, and while there he made an agreement with the Scots. He promised what he had refused a year earlier, to let the Church of England become Presbyterian (though only for three years), and the Scots undertook to put him back on the throne.

The Second Civil War. The second Civil War took place in 1648. It was short and sharp. A Scottish army invaded England on behalf of the King, and the Royalists took up arms again. But the New Model Army was more than a match for them. In Kent and Essex the Royalists were defeated by Fairfax, while the Scots were defeated by Cromwell in three battles in Lancashire and were driven back to their own land. The second Civil War was over.

Trial and Death of the King. It was now that the army resolved to bring the King to trial for the bloodshed of the second Civil War. The men thought that as they had offered fair terms to him he should have accepted them; instead, he had brought about more fighting, and he must suffer for it. A court of a hundred and thirty men was formed to try him in Westminster Hall, but more than sixty of them refused to take part in the trial. Even Fairfax would not appear. When his name was called Lady Fairfax, who was in the Hall, said: "He is not here; he has more wit than to be here." The King asked the court by what right they claimed to try him. The reply was: "By the right of the people of England." Lady Fairfax called out: "Not a half nor a quarter of the people of England." Charles would not admit the right of the court to try him, and would not defend himself, and he sat reading a book while the trial was going on. He was sentenced to death, and, as is described in another chapter, he was beheaded on a scaffold in front of his palace of Whitehall.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Why did Charles I raise an army in 1642? What mistake did he make in that year?
2. Write three or four lines about each of the following: The train-bands, the Ironsides, the Solemn League and Covenant, the New Model Army.
3. Mention four of the battles in the Great Rebellion. Who fought them and with what results?
4. Explain why Charles I was defeated in the Great Rebellion.

CHAPTER 15

THE COMMONWEALTH

The Rump. For eleven years England was without a king. By this time only about sixty members of the Long Parliament were left. They still called themselves Parliament, but people commonly called them the "Rump." The Rump thought it had a right to rule the country; the soldiers did not think so, but, as the army had other things to do than to set up a new Government, it left the Rump alone for a time.

The Rump abolished the monarchy and the House of Lords and declared that England should be a Commonwealth, that is, a republic. Most English people were very sorry that King Charles had been put to death, and they hated the Commonwealth, but they did not rebel against it.

Ireland and Scotland. In Ireland there was a Royalist army ready to fight for Charles II; it was defeated by Cromwell, as is described in another chapter. In Scotland Charles II was proclaimed King and was crowned at Scone. But if Charles remained King of Scotland he would try, sooner or later, to make himself King of England. If the Commonwealth was to be safe it was necessary to turn Charles off the throne of Scotland. Fairfax refused to fight against the Scots and resigned the command of the army. Cromwell became General of the army, and marched into Scotland. At Dunbar his army, almost without food, was caught between the sea and the hills, on which a Scottish army was encamped. If he attacked he would have to charge uphill; if he stayed where he was his men would starve. To his delight the Scots made the mistake of moving down to level ground. "The Lord hath delivered them into our hands," said Cromwell. "Let God arise and let his enemies be scattered." And the Scots were scattered!

Charles II left Scotland and marched into England, hoping

that the English would rise to support him, but Cromwell followed him and defeated him at Worcester. He escaped to the Continent, and henceforth the Commonwealth was safe.

The End of the Rump. In 1653 Cromwell resolved to put an end to the Rump, of which he was a member. One day he went to the House with a few soldiers. Leaving his men outside, he entered and took his seat. Presently he made a speech in which he gave his opinion of some of the members. "Sir Harry Vane! Sir Harry Vane! The Lord deliver me from Sir Harry Vane!" Then, raising his voice, he said: "You are no Parliament. Get you gone." He stamped his foot and the soldiers entered. He told them to clear the House, and the members had to leave. One of the soldiers asked what was to be done with the mace, which rested on the table whenever the House was sitting. "Take away that bauble," he said. When the House was empty Cromwell left, locking the door and putting the key in his pocket. (The next day someone fixed a notice on the door: "This house to let, unfurnished.")

Barebones's Parliament. Cromwell now had to rule the country himself, because there was nobody else to do it. But he did not want to rule by himself, and he called together a number of "godly men," to form a kind of Parliament. It was not really a Parliament, because its members were not elected by the people but were appointed by Cromwell. It was known as Barebones's Parliament, because one of the members was Praise-God Barebones. Cromwell soon found that the godly men were unable to help him in ruling the country, and he sent them away.

Puritan parents sometimes named their children with short texts from the Bible instead of giving them ordinary names. Barebones's Christian name was "Praise-God." The texts were not always short; another Puritan was called "They-shall-bind-their-kings-in-chains-and-their-nobles-with-fetters-of-iron." Praise-God Barebones had a son whom he named "Unless-Christ-had-died-for-thee-thou-hadst-been-damned." Such a name was far

too long for everyday use, and in after life this man was known as "Damned Barebones."

Cromwell as Protector. In September, 1653, Cromwell was appointed Lord Protector, and as Protector he ruled England until his death in 1658. He called two Parliaments, but he had almost as much trouble with them as Charles I had had with his Parliaments, and he had to dissolve them. He sent his last Parliament away with the words: "The Lord judge betwixt thee and me." At one time some of his friends asked Cromwell to take the title of King. He did not do so, perhaps because he felt that his army might turn against him if he became King. But it is interesting to think that if he had taken the title, and if the House of Cromwell had kept the throne, the King of Great Britain to-day might be Oliver VIII or Richard X!

Wars with the Dutch and Spain. There were wars in Cromwell's time. In a war with the Dutch several fights took place at sea between Blake and Tromp, and in the last of them Tromp was slain. France and Spain were at war, and both countries wanted Cromwell's help. He sided with France, and England fought against Spain by land and sea. Spanish ships were captured; Admiral Penn took Jamaica, in the West Indies; and six thousand men of the New Model Army crossed to France in 1658 and helped the French in the Battle of the Dunes. The Spaniards were glad to make peace.

Puritan Rule. The Commonwealth was the period of Puritan rule. It was not a happy time for Englishmen. Theatres were closed, because the Puritans thought stage-plays were evil. Many of the ordinary amusements of the people, such as cock-fighting and bear-baiting, were forbidden. The ordinary services of the Church were no longer held; many of the clergy were turned out, and their places were filled by Puritan ministers. Even the keeping of Christmas Day was forbidden. All these rules made the people hate Puritan government and hope for the return of the King.

The End of Puritan Rule. Oliver Cromwell died in 1658, and his son Richard Cromwell became Protector. But Richard did not want to rule the country, and he soon resigned. For some months army generals fought against one another, each of them hoping to become Protector. At length General Monk, who had been ruling Scotland and had taken no part in these quarrels, returned with his forces to England, and invited Charles II to come back. The Long Parliament, which had not met for several years, met once more, and it also invited Charles to return. The King did so, and was welcomed by the whole nation. The Commonwealth was ended.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. What did Cromwell do to defeat the Royalists after the death of Charles I, in (a) Ireland, (b) Scotland, and (c) England?
2. What do you know of Cromwell's rule as Lord Protector?
3. Make a list of English victories in foreign wars during the Commonwealth.
4. Why did the Commonwealth come to an end?

CHAPTER 16

THE LATER STUARTS

Charles II	1660-85
James II	1685-8

Charles II. Charles II, tall, dark, and strong, was in most ways utterly unlike his father. The first Charles was a man of good life; the second Charles was not. The father was devoted to the Church of England; the son had no real religion, though upon his deathbed he became a Roman Catholic. Charles I was stately and dignified, with a very high idea of the importance of the kingly position; Charles II was gay and witty, and spent most of his time in pleasure, though he, too, could be stately and kinglike when occasion demanded.

There is at least one noble act to the credit of Charles II. When his father was a prisoner and in danger of death Charles, as Prince of Wales (and at that time only eighteen years old and in exile), sent to the Parliament a blank sheet of paper bearing only his signature. He was ready to agree to any terms that might be written on that sheet if only his father's life might be spared. His effort to save King Charles failed, but at least he made the effort.

After his father's death Charles II was the rightful King. There seemed little hope of his obtaining the crown of England at that time, but there was a chance that he might be luckier in Scotland. He went to Scotland and was crowned King, but Cromwell marched north, defeated a Scottish army at Dunbar, and conquered the country. Charles acted boldly, and marched with a small army into England; perhaps he hoped that a great rising of the English people would follow and that the Puritans would be overthrown. But there was no rising. Cromwell returned from Scotland and came up with the young King at Worcester. In a battle in the streets of Worcester Charles was defeated, and had to fly for his life. A reward was offered for

his capture. It is well known that he hid among the branches of an oak-tree while soldiers of the New Model army were searching for him. (In after years people wore a sprig of oak in their hats or in their buttonholes on every twenty-ninth of May, the King's



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CHARLES II WITH JANE LANE AFTER THE BATTLE
OF WORCESTER

birthday, in remembrance of his escape.) Disguised as a man-servant (and he was so tall that he was not easily disguised) in attendance upon a lady, Jane Lane, he made his way to the south coast and escaped to France.

For nine years after the Battle of Worcester Charles was in exile with a few friends, so poor that they sometimes had hardly enough to eat and drink, while their clothes were shabby and even ragged. Cromwell died in 1658, and other generals of the New Model Army quarrelled among themselves, until General

Monk invited Charles to return to England. He did so in 1660 and was received everywhere with great joy.

For the rest of his life Charles II reigned in England, and he kept to one principle very firmly—"not to go upon his travels again." He did not try to rule without Parliament, as his father had done, and he would yield to Parliament or the people when necessary, as his father would not do. Even if he was the worst, he was certainly the most popular of the Stuart Kings of England and was commonly known by the nickname of "Old Rowley." He was clever and keen-witted, charming in manner, kindly and polite to everybody, high and low. But he was exceedingly selfish and of low morals; even his good nature was selfish, and if he granted many of the requests that men made to him this was because he did not want the trouble of finding reasons for refusing.

The King of France, Louis XIV, was his cousin. Louis was anxious that the Roman Catholic religion should be restored in England, and secret treaties were made between the two kings. Charles promised to declare himself a Roman Catholic *at a suitable time* and to make things better for Roman Catholics in England, and Louis promised to pay Charles large sums of money. Charles accepted the money, and so was said to be in the pay of the King of France. But he did not keep his promises; he felt that if he announced that he was a Roman Catholic he might lose his throne, and he did not intend to go upon his travels again. (The suitable time for his conversion proved to be just before his death!) Charles received payments from Louis for many years, but it must be admitted that Louis did not get value for his money.

The heir to the throne was Charles's brother, James, Duke of York, who was a Roman Catholic. In 1678 a man named Titus Oates pretended to discover a Popish Plot to kill the King and put the Duke of York on the throne. There was no such plot; Oates was a liar who made up the tale for the sake of the reward that would be given to an informer. But people were very much alarmed; they were ready to believe anything about Roman Catholics, who had formed the Gunpowder Plot in 1605, and who

were believed to have started the Great Fire of London in 1666. Charles was not alarmed; he questioned Oates and declared that he was "a lying knave." The King said to his brother: "They will never kill me to make *you* King."

Oates gave the names of people who, he said, were in the plot, and many innocent Roman Catholics were put to death. Becoming bolder, Oates even mentioned the name of the Queen, who was a Roman Catholic, but Charles showed so much anger that Oates hastily found that he had made a mistake. Charles might have interfered to save other innocent victims of Oates, and it is to his shame that he did not do so.

By this time there were two parties in Parliament, Whigs and Tories. After the Popish Plot the Whigs wanted to prevent the Duke of York from succeeding to the throne, as he was a Roman Catholic, while the Tories supported the Duke. Charles II, like other kings of his line, firmly believed in the Divine Right of Kings, and he made the utmost effort to prevent the passing of an Exclusion Bill. The Whigs were in a majority in the House of Commons, and they refused to grant money which the King needed very much unless he would agree to his brother's exclusion. Forty years earlier Charles I, in need of money, had yielded to Parliament, and agreed to the execution of the Earl of Strafford; when Parliament wanted to exclude the Duke of York from the throne Charles II did not yield to it. A new secret agreement was made with Louis XIV, who provided the money the King wanted, and Charles dissolved Parliament. During the last four years of his reign there was no Parliament.

In 1685 the King fell ill, and did not recover. Before his death he asked those in his room to excuse him for being so long a time dying! The clergy of the Church of England were asked to leave the bedroom; a Roman Catholic priest entered, and Charles was received into the Church of Rome. He is remembered in the words of one of his nobles:

Here lies our sovereign Lord the King,
Whose promise none relies on,
He never said a foolish thing,
Nor ever did a wise one.

James II. James, Duke of York, succeeded his brother, and kept his throne for less than four years. At his accession he promised that though he was a Roman Catholic he, as King, would protect the Church of England. He was crowned in Westminster Abbey by the Archbishop of Canterbury.

In the first year of the reign there was a rebellion in the west and south-west of England on behalf of the Duke of Monmouth, whom the rebels wished to put on the throne. It never had much chance of success, and it was crushed at the Battle of Sedgemoor. Monmouth was taken prisoner and was beheaded in the Tower. Hundreds of people who had taken part in the rising were tried before the Lord Chief Justice Jeffreys, who sentenced many of them to be hanged and many more to be whipped. Some of the prisoners were sold as slaves in the West Indies. These cruel proceedings were known as the Bloody Assize, and they made the King very unpopular. It is true that these poor country folk had, by joining in the rebellion, been guilty of treason; nevertheless, a wise king would have issued a general pardon for all but the leaders. But James was not a wise king.

During his short reign James did not keep his promise to respect the religion of the nation. He appointed many Roman Catholics to important positions in the State, and he tried to appoint Roman Catholics to places in the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge. He even wanted to make a Roman Catholic priest Archbishop of York in the Church of England, but the Pope would not agree to it. He suspended the laws against Puritans and Roman Catholics, and when seven Bishops of the Church protested against this he had them put on trial. There were great rejoicings throughout the country when they were found not guilty; horsemen galloped in all directions with the news, and people lit bonfires to show their joy.

Both Whigs and Tories disliked the King's way of ruling, but there was no thought of rebelling until the birth of a Prince of Wales was announced. Until then it was thought that James would be succeeded by his daughter Mary, who was a Protestant, and the wife of William, Prince of Orange, the ruler of Holland. But a Prince of Wales would succeed to the throne before his



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JAMES II LEARNING OF THE LANDING OF WILLIAM OF ORANGE

sister, and he would be brought up as a Roman Catholic, so that James's acts would be continued by his son.

A number of leading men, Whigs and Tories, sent an invitation to the Prince of Orange to come and deliver England from James II. The Prince sailed down Channel and landed with a small Dutch army at Brixham, in Torbay. He marched to Exeter, and thence to Reading and London. Many people joined him, while James found himself deserted, even by his own troops. He fled, but got only as far as Gravesend, where he was recognised and brought back to London. William advanced slowly, for he did not want to reach London while James was still there; he would not know what to do with him; he certainly would not wish to put his wife's father to death. James solved the question for him by making a second flight. This time he reached France, and the reign of the last Stuart King of the direct line came to an end.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Mention three things that Charles II did in order to make sure that he should not go upon his travels again.
2. Why did James II lose the throne?
3. What happened at these places: Dunbar, Worcester, Sedgemoor, Brixham, Gravesend?
4. In what ways did Charles II show that he was (*a*) a wiser man, and (*b*) a worse man, than his father?

CHAPTER 17

SOME FAMOUS MEN OF STUART TIMES

Francis Bacon. Bacon was a nephew of William Cecil, Lord Burleigh, and hoped by his uncle's influence to gain an important position at Elizabeth's court, but Lord Burleigh did not like him and would do nothing to help him. Bacon studied law and became known as a good speaker and an able lawyer, but it was not till the latter part of the reign of James I that he was appointed Lord Chancellor and received the title of Viscount St. Albans. A Lord Chancellor had many duties; among them, he was the highest of the King's judges. At that time people sometimes sent presents to judges who were to try their cases, hoping in that way to bribe the judges to decide for them. (This, of course, was a bad system; nowadays no judge would accept a present, and any judge would certainly send to prison anybody who even made him such an offer.) Bacon, like other judges, accepted presents. But he had enemies, and in 1621 he was impeached for receiving bribes. He did not deny the charge, but he stated that he had never allowed the presents to affect his judgment, and this was true. He was dismissed from the post of Lord Chancellor, fined £40,000, sent to the Tower, and told that he might never hold any public position again. He declared: "I was the justest judge in England these fifty years, but this is the justest sentence in England these two hundred years." The King excused him from paying the fine and released him from the Tower after two days, but he was not restored to his high office.

Besides being a lawyer Bacon was a man of science and a philosopher. He wrote *Novum Organum* and *The Advancement of Learning*, and his *Essays* are still read with pleasure. (Some people even think that Shakespeare's plays were written by Bacon!)

George Villiers, Duke of Buckingham. Villiers was the son of a country squire. He was handsome, graceful, and a good dancer, and was lucky enough to be noticed by James I and to become the favourite of the King and the Prince of Wales. James made him Duke of Buckingham, and gave him large presents, so that he became very rich. The King called him "Steenie," and he called James "Dear Gossip"; the Prince was "Baby Charles." To other people Buckingham was proud and overbearing. He was very unpopular both with the nobles at court and with the common people.

When Charles visited Spain to woo the Infanta Buckingham went with him. At Madrid he offended Spanish nobles by his haughty manners, and the Prince and he returned to England without having arranged the marriage. The Spanish match was disliked so much in England that for a time Buckingham was quite popular.

Buckingham had many faults. He was not a worthy man, though he was not quite so bad as his enemies made out. When Bacon was impeached Buckingham spoke in his defence in the House of Lords. He was an able man; when he was appointed Lord High Admiral he found that the navy was not in a good condition, and he did a good deal to increase its strength and to make it fit for fighting. Soon after Charles became King there was a short war between England and France, and a fleet was sent to Rochelle, on the west coast of France, to help the Huguenots, who were holding the town against the King of France and Cardinal Richelieu. The expedition was led by Buckingham himself; it was not well managed by him and was a total failure, but at least he was brave and even rash in the fighting. A second expedition was prepared, but just before it was to sail Buckingham was murdered at Portsmouth by John Felton.

John Hampden. Hampden was a gentleman of Buckinghamshire who was a member of several of the Parliaments of James I and Charles I. When Charles tried to levy ship-money on inland counties Hampden refused to pay the twenty shillings that was demanded of him, asserting that the tax was illegal. The case

(to settle whether ship-money was legal or not) came before twelve judges. Three reasons why the tax should not be paid were put forward on behalf of Hampden:

- (1) That ship-money should be levied only on coast counties.
- (2) That it should be levied only when needed.
- (3) That it should be levied only by Parliament, and not by the King.

The King's lawyers replied:

(1) That the whole country and not only the coast counties should pay for the nation's ships.

(2) That only the King could say when ship-money was needed (and it was needed at this time for the building of ships to put down piracy in the English Channel).

(3) That the King had the right to levy it, without asking Parliament's permission.

On the first two points the King's argument was the better. Hampden's case really rested on the third point, but seven judges decided against him and five in his favour. Ship-money, therefore, was declared to be a legal tax.

Hampden was a member of the Long Parliament, and he was one of the five members whom the King tried to arrest for treason. When the Great Rebellion broke out Hampden fought against the King. He raised a troop of horse at his own expense. At the Battle of Chalgrove Field he was seriously wounded; he rode from the field with his head drooping, and he died six days later. In character he was one of the best of the parliamentary leaders, his simple goodness, quietness, and courage endearing him to everybody. Even many of the Royalists were sorry to hear of his death.

Sir Thomas Wentworth, Earl of Strafford. Wentworth, a Yorkshireman, was a member of Parliament in the reigns of James I and Charles I. He disliked Buckingham, and in the House of Commons he spoke against the King and the Duke. After Buckingham's death he changed sides and became a supporter and friend of Charles I. He thought that the members of Parliament were not acting fairly towards the King, and that

it would be best for the nation to be ruled firmly by the King without Parliament. His change of sides made him hated by the parliamentary leaders, one of whom said: "You have left us, but we will not leave you while you have a head on your shoulders."

In 1632 Wentworth was appointed Lord Deputy of Ireland, and for the next eight years he ruled that country on his plan of "Thorough." He put down disorder "thoroughly." He raised an army in Ireland and made it "thoroughly" fit. He set up a linen industry which was soon "thoroughly" prosperous. Irish trade increased under his rule. He was certainly hated in Ireland, where he was known as "Black Tom Tyrant," but his firm rule was for the good of the people, and he protected the peasants from the oppression of powerful Irish nobles.

When Charles called the Long Parliament he sent for Wentworth, whom he made Earl of Strafford. The Earl knew that his enemies in Parliament—the men who used to be his friends—would try to destroy him. He felt safer in Ireland, where he had an army and the Parliament could not touch him. But the King needed his advice and pressed him to return to London, promising: "On my royal word they shall not harm a hair of your head." When the Long Parliament met, in 1640, Strafford was impeached for high treason. No other charge would do, because the parliamentary leaders wanted him to be put to death, which was the penalty for treason. But they soon found that it would be difficult to prove him guilty of treason. In an impeachment a man is accused by the House of Commons, and is tried by the House of Lords. It seemed certain that the Lords would find Strafford not guilty, so the Commons dropped the charge. In its place they passed a Bill of Attainder against him, though a few of them voted against it. (An Act of Attainder is an Act of Parliament for putting a man to death.) The House of Lords did not like to pass the Bill, but did so in fear of the mob in the streets, which was calling for Strafford's death.

The Bill needed the King's signature, and the King had promised to protect his friend. For two days he hesitated. It was feared that the crowds outside the palace would break in. This might happen if he refused to sign; yet he could not sign

without losing his honour. Most of his friends urged him to sign; Juxon, the Bishop of London, alone reminded him of his pledge to the Earl. At length Strafford himself sent the King a letter in which he gave him back his promise. Charles took him at his word and signed the Bill—the most dishonourable action of his life, and one that did him no good. If he had refused to sign, and if he had perished at the hands of the mob, his fate would have been no worse than it was a few years later, and his reputation to-day would have stood higher. “The Earl of Strafford is a happier man than I am,” said the King. “Has he given us Strafford? Then he can refuse us nothing,” said John Pym, one of the leading men in Parliament.

Strafford was beheaded the next day. On his way to the scaffold he passed the cell in which Archbishop Laud was imprisoned. He knelt, and the Archbishop from his window gave the Earl his blessing. Strafford’s last words, as he placed his head upon the block were: “Put not your trust in princes.”

William Laud, Archbishop of Canterbury. Laud was born at Reading, and gained high honours at the University of Oxford. He became a priest, and in 1621 Bishop of St. David’s. He was a friend of Charles I, who in 1628 made him Bishop of London and, five years later, Archbishop of Canterbury.

Laud, like the King, was opposed to the Puritans, and he made up his mind that services in the Church of England should be conducted properly. Some of the clergy who were Puritan had the altar in the middle of their churches; it is said that people who came to church piled their hats on the altar and sometimes sat at it to write their letters. The Archbishop ordered that in every church the altar should be placed at the east end and that a rail should be fixed before it. Some men even refused to take their hats off when they entered a church, and the Archbishop had to give an order about this. He ordered also that the Book of Common Prayer should be used in the services of the Church, and that no other kind of service should be used. He insisted that the clergy should wear proper robes when they were conducting services. In giving all these orders Laud was not

making new rules for the Church; he was seeing that existing laws which had often been broken were obeyed. The Puritans hated him for requiring these things; they hated him even more for issuing a "Declaration of Lawful Sports," by which people were allowed to play games and practise archery on the village commons on Sundays after they had attended church. The Puritans thought it to be wicked to play games on Sundays.

Some of the Puritans wrote books and pamphlets against the Archbishop and the Church, and they were tried before the High Commission Court, which dealt with Church affairs. Some were fined and imprisoned; others had to stand in the pillory; a few even had their ears cut off. These were cruel punishments, and the Archbishop was blamed for them.

Laud tried to make the Church of Scotland like the Church of England, and, with the King's consent, he issued a prayer book for use in the Scottish Kirk. There was an uproar in Scotland, and the book could not be used. Rebellion broke out, and when the Scots invaded England and defeated Charles he was forced to call the Long Parliament.

One of the first acts of the Long Parliament was to impeach Strafford and Laud. The Archbishop was sent to the Tower and remained there nearly four years. It was not until 1645 that he was brought out to be tried for treason. He was certainly no traitor, but his treatment of the Puritans had made him hated by them. He was sentenced to death and was beheaded. Nobody to-day approves of his execution, not even those who dislike his acts, while men who think he acted rightly regard him as a martyr and a saint.

William Juxon, Bishop of London. Juxon, a friend of Charles I, became Bishop of London in 1633, when Laud was appointed to Canterbury. He was a man of very good life, simple and sincere, gentle and kindly, yet of great courage. He alone strongly advised Charles not to sign the Bill of Attainder against Strafford, "seeing you know his lordship to be innocent." In after years the King was wont to refer to him as "that good man," and said: "I never got his opinion freely in my life but when I had it I

was ever the better for it." Though he was a friend of the King the Parliament allowed him to live in his palace at Fulham throughout the Civil War. He attended the King in his last days, and walked with him to his execution. It was to Juxon that the King uttered his last word, "Remember!" The Puritans questioned the Bishop about this, but nothing would make him say what it was that the King had asked him to remember. When Charles II was restored in 1660 Juxon, now very old, was appointed Archbishop of Canterbury, where he died in 1663.

Prince Rupert. Rupert, a nephew of Charles I, was a cavalry leader in the Civil War. In the early part of the war he was famous for the strength of his cavalry charges, which in several battles scattered everything before them, and it was not till Cromwell trained his Ironsides that Rupert's charge was checked at Marston Moor.

In 1645 there was trouble between Rupert and the King. The Prince had surrendered Bristol to Fairfax because he saw that the King's cause was lost, and he advised his uncle to make peace. Charles was angry, and advised Rupert to leave the country. Rupert, however, demanded to be tried by court-martial, which found him "not guilty of lack of courage and fidelity."

Rupert was at Oxford when the city surrendered to the Puritan forces in 1646, and he was allowed to leave the country. After the King's death the Prince continued to make war on the Commonwealth by attacking English ships in the Channel and off the coast of Spain and Portugal, but he was defeated by Blake and escaped to the West Indies.

Rupert lived in England after the restoration of his cousin, Charles II, and he fought in the Dutch Wars. In later life he was much interested in science and mathematics. He invented a new kind of gunpowder, and he was one of the founders of the Hudson's Bay Company, which traded in furs with the Indians of North America, and the Royal African Company, which was formed for the slave trade.

James Graham, Marquis of Montrose. Montrose was one of the

noblest and most loyal of the Scottish leaders in Stuart times. He took the Covenant, but he did not like the Scottish clergy having so much to say about the government of the country. The Duke of Argyll, the leader of the Covenanters, hated him, and he was cast out of their party.

While the English Civil War was going on the Scots sent an army into England to fight against the King. Montrose in Scotland gathered forces to fight for Charles. He won several battles, though he was defeated at last and had to fly to France.

After the death of Charles I Montrose returned to Scotland, hoping to overthrow Argyll and the Covenanters, and make the young Charles King of Scotland. But he was defeated and captured, and Argyll was only too ready to have him put to death. He was not even given the usual death of a nobleman (beheading), but was hanged at Edinburgh.

Robert Blake. Blake was a Somerset man who became a colonel in the parliamentary army in the Civil War. In 1649 he was appointed to the command of the fleet. (In the seventeenth century soldiers were often appointed to command ships of war, and even fleets. The actual sailing of a ship was directed by the master, but the fighting was under the orders of soldiers of high rank.) During the next eight years Blake fought against many enemies. He was successful against Prince Rupert, who was attacking English merchant ships in the Channel and off the coast of Spain. He fought several hard battles against Tromp in the first Dutch War. It is said that after a fight in which the Dutch gained the upper hand Tromp sailed down the Channel with a broom at his mast-head.

"I've a broom at the mast," said he,
"And I'll sweep the mighty sea."

Blake beat Tromp in the next engagement, and fixed a whip at his mast-head.

"I've a whip at the mast," said he,
"And I'll flog the mighty sea."

Blake fought in the Mediterranean against the Corsairs of North Africa, and in 1657 he attacked a Spanish fleet in the Bay of

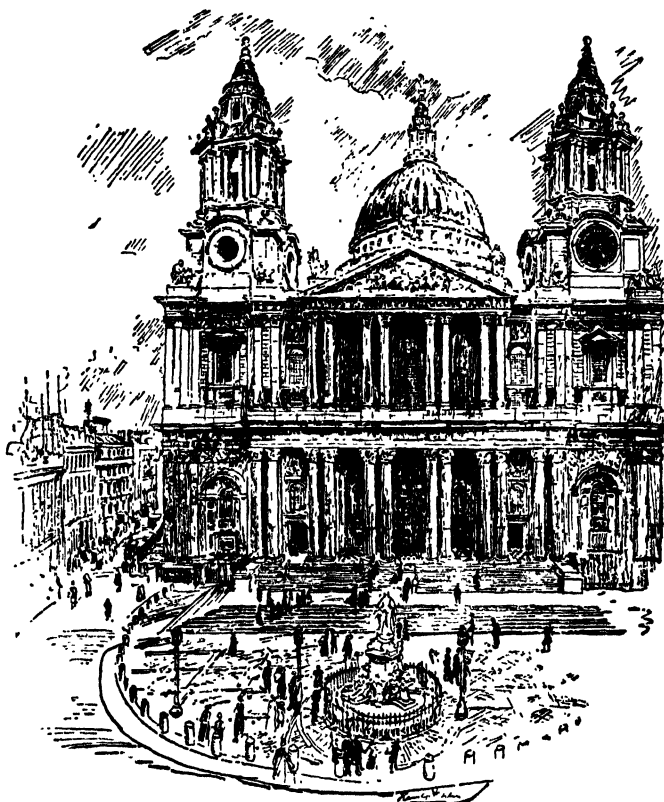
Santa Cruz in the island of Teneriffe, inflicting heavy damage upon it. But his health was failing, and before his ships reached England he died. He was England's greatest admiral in the seventeenth century.

Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon. During the first few months of the Long Parliament Hyde was against the King, but he soon changed sides and became one of the King's most faithful followers. Charles learned to trust him, though he did not always follow his advice. Hyde was with the Prince of Wales in the latter part of the Civil War, and went with him to the Channel Islands, and thence to the Continent. He was in exile with Charles II, and shared the poverty and hardship of the young King. When Charles was restored to the throne in 1660 Hyde was made Earl of Clarendon and Lord Chancellor. For seven years he was the King's chief minister. There was no Prime Minister in those times, but Clarendon was more like a Prime Minister than any other statesman before Walpole. Some harsh laws were passed against the Puritans during this period; they were called the Clarendon Code, though Clarendon had very little to do with them. He was disliked by the Parliament and was blamed, unjustly, for everything that went wrong in the kingdom. Charles, also, was tired of him, and when there was some talk of impeaching him the King did nothing to help him. In this, Charles showed himself most ungrateful to a faithful friend. Clarendon fled to France, where he lived for the rest of his life, passing his last years in writing *A History of the Great Rebellion*.

Clarendon's daughter Anne married James, Duke of York, who was afterwards James II, so that he was the grandfather of two English queens, Mary II and Anne.

Sir Christopher Wren. The Great Fire of London occurred in 1666, and a large part of the city was destroyed, though not a single life was lost. Most of the houses in the old city were of wood, and streets were narrow. Wren, a professor in the University of Oxford, had been appointed in 1663 to repair St. Paul's

Cathedral, which was at that time in a very bad state, but the Cathedral was burned to the ground in the fire, and Wren was now given the task of rebuilding it.



ST. PAUL'S CATHEDRAL

He thought that the new Cathedral ought to stand in a wide open space, and he drew up a plan for twenty-four wide new streets radiating from the Cathedral as a centre. But his plan was not carried out, and when new houses were built the streets

followed the old lines, though the houses were of brick or stone. In addition to the Cathedral more than fifty churches in the City of London were designed by him and built under his direction, but the Cathedral was his greatest work. Among the ruins of the old Cathedral he found a stone on which was the word *Resurgam* (which is Latin for "I shall rise again"). He took this as his motto for the work, and the stone was used in the new building. The cost of the work was met by a tax on all coal brought up the Thames to London. Wren himself was paid only four pounds a week, and even this small sum was not paid regularly. The Cathedral was not finished till 1710; fortunately, Wren lived to see it completed. He died in 1723, at the age of ninety. There could be no better tribute to the great architect than the Latin phrase in the Cathedral—*Si monumentum requiris, circumspice* (If you wish to see his monument, look around). Unfortunately, the tablet bearing this inscription was destroyed when the Cathedral was damaged by a German bomb.

Richard Baxter. Baxter was born in 1615 in a village in Shropshire and received his education in the village school. He became a clergyman, and was a man of very holy life. Charles II respected Baxter very much; he made him one of his chaplains and offered to make him a bishop. But Baxter, like Latimer a century earlier, would not act against his conscience even for a bishopric. At this time nearly two thousand ministers left the Church because they did not agree with it, and Baxter was one of them. In the reign of James II he was tried before the Lord Chief Justice Jeffreys for writing a book which was said to be against the Church. The judge bullied him most unfairly, and ordered him to pay a heavy fine. He was kept in prison till the fine was paid. He was regarded as one of the most saintly men of the seventeenth century.

John Bunyan. Bunyan was born at Elstow, near Bedford, of poor parents. He learned to read and write at the village school, and became a tinker, a mender of pots and pans. He was a soldier in the parliamentary army in the Civil War. He thought

himself to be a very sinful man, although in fact he lived a very good life. He became a preacher, though he continued to earn his living by his trade. In 1660 he was imprisoned in the county gaol at Bedford for preaching without a licence, and he remained there for twelve years. More than once he was told that he would be set free if he would promise to give up preaching. He replied: "If you let me out to-day I will preach again to-morrow." He preached to his fellow-prisoners in the gaol, and as he could not follow his trade as a tinker in the prison he learned to make boot-laces, which he was able to sell. He was not always shut up closely, and sometimes he was allowed out for short periods on promising to return. He was set free in 1672, and at once began preaching again. He wrote several books while he was in prison, but his greatest work, *The Pilgrim's Progress*, was for the most part written after his release. In it he described the adventures of a Christian in his journey from the City of Destruction to the Celestial City. *The Pilgrim's Progress* was, and still is, widely read. It is, perhaps, after the Bible, the most popular book in the English language, and it has been translated into more than a hundred other languages.

William Penn. Penn was the son of Admiral Penn, who captured Jamaica from the Spanish in the time of Cromwell. When the younger Penn grew up he became a Quaker, a member of the Society of Friends, much to the disgust of his father. In the seventeenth century Quakers were disliked by both Churchmen and Puritans, and Penn was more than once cast into prison. He was put on trial for preaching to a crowd of people in the street, in London, and though he was found not guilty he was fined for refusing to take his hat off in court.

Penn thought that, as the Friends were not allowed to live in peace in England, they would be better off in a colony in North America. He asked Charles II for a grant of land, and, as the King owed Penn a sum of money which he had borrowed from the Admiral, he gave him a tract of land for the new colony.

The colony of Pennsylvania was thus founded by Penn and his friends. In other colonies there had been troubles between the

settlers and the Indians; Penn resolved to win the friendship of the Indians by treating them fairly. The chief town of the colony was called Philadelphia — the city of brotherly love. Though Pennsylvania was a Quaker colony Penn allowed Christians of all kinds to settle there. Slavery existed in the colony, but there were not many slaves, and they were treated well. Pennsylvania became one of the most prosperous of the North American colonies.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. In the Stuart period, who was
 - (a) the greatest friend of the King?
 - (b) the greatest lawyer?
 - (c) the greatest cavalry leader?
 - (d) the greatest admiral?
 - (e) the greatest architect?
 - (f) the writer of the most popular book?
 - (g) the greatest Churchman?
2. Write a life of one of the men you select in answering Question 1.
3. Write an account of ship-money.
4. Write three or four lines about each of the following: Thorough, the Lord Chancellor, the Declaration of Lawful Sports, St. Paul's Cathedral.
5. Choose from this chapter three men whom you admire most, and state why you think they are worthy to be honoured.

CHAPTER 18

KINGS AND QUEENS AFTER THE REVOLUTION

{ William III	1689-1702
{ Mary II	1689-94
Anne	1702-14
George I	1714-27
George II	1727-60

The Revolution. After the flight of James II to France William, Prince of Orange, reached London. A Parliament which met early in 1689 deposed James II and offered the crown to William and his wife, Mary, the daughter of James II, jointly. They both became sovereigns, though in fact it was William who ruled. William and Mary were Protestants, and a law was passed stating that in future no Roman Catholic might be King of England.

This change of kings is known as the English Revolution. People often think of a revolution as an event which takes place with disorder and fighting and bloodshed, perhaps because there was a good deal of bloodshed in the French Revolution a century later. But there can be a revolution without bloodshed; the Revolution of 1689 is known as the Bloodless Revolution—in England, at least.

The word "revolution" describes the movement of a wheel; as the wheel goes round, the point at the top goes to the bottom and the point at the bottom comes up to the top. So it is in the affairs of a nation; when a revolution occurs the king or the statesman or the party which has been in power falls from power, and another king or statesman or party comes into power. In many countries such a change can be made only by force, and blood is shed. In England there is now a peaceful revolution every time a general election is held in which there is a change of the party in power. (In 1945 there was a general election in

which the Conservatives were defeated and the Labour party gained a majority; this was a revolution.)

The Revolution of 1689 was a change not of parties, but of kings, and the important thing about it was that the outgoing king claimed Divine Right while the new king did not. William III was not appointed to rule by God but by Parliament. Even his wife Mary could not claim Divine Right, though she was the daughter of James II, for her father was still alive, and when he died his Divine Right would pass to his son, the young Prince of Wales, and not to her. Since 1689 no King of England has been able to claim that he ruled by Divine Right.

Parliament was now very important, for it had deposed a king and put another in his place. It was, therefore, more powerful than the king. It met every year for several months in the year, and there has never been a year since 1689 in which Parliament has not met. As time passed, kings became less important, and the work of ruling the country was carried on by ministers instead of by the king. These ministers were men who belonged to the party which had a majority in the House of Commons.

Though at the time of his flight from England to France James was deserted by everybody, there were some people in England, and a good many in Scotland and Ireland, who did not like the change and who wanted to restore James to the throne. These people were called Jacobites, and the story of their attempts to get the Stuarts back on the throne is told in another chapter.

At the time of the Revolution the Jacobites fought for James in both Scotland and Ireland, so that the Revolution was not bloodless in those countries. The crown of Scotland had been offered to William and Mary and was accepted by them, but the Highland clans, under Graham of Claverhouse, took up arms for James. They won the Battle of Killiecrankie against William's forces under Colonel Mackay, but Claverhouse was killed in the fight. (There was a legend that Claverhouse had sold his soul to the devil, who had promised in return that he should not be killed in battle by anything but a silver bullet; it is said that he was slain by a silver button torn from a soldier's tunic and thrust into his musket.) After the battle the Highlanders went

home, and Scotland settled down under William's rule, though he was not popular there.

There was much more fighting in Ireland than in Scotland.



LOUIS XIV

James landed in Ireland with a small French army in 1689. Many of the Irish took up arms for him, but the English and Scottish settlers in Ireland fought against him. They were besieged by James in Londonderry and Enniskillen, but neither place was captured. William went over to Ireland in 1690 and defeated James at the Battle of the Boyne. James fled to France, and though fighting went on for another year the country was at length conquered for William.

William III and Mary II. William was a Dutchman and was ruler of Holland. The Dutch were the enemies of Louis XIV,

who wanted to conquer them. There had already been one long war between France and Holland, and William, who loved his native land much more than England, accepted the crown of England only in order to obtain the alliance of England with the Dutch against France.

A war of England and Holland, with some other powers, against France, took place between 1689 and 1697. It is known as the War of the League of Augsburg, or the War of the English Succession. If Louis had won this war he would have overrun Holland and would have restored James II in England; both countries, therefore, wished to resist him to the utmost. He did not win, and though he had not been beaten he was glad to make peace in 1697. In the treaty of peace he had to recognise William as King of Great Britain.

Another war was likely to follow. The King of Spain was expected to die at any time, and he had no children to succeed him. Louis hoped that his grandson, Philip, Duke of Anjou, would become King of Spain; if this happened, France and Spain would become close allies, and Louis could hope at last to beat England and Holland. The King of Spain died in 1700, and he left the whole of the Spanish Empire to the Duke of Anjou. William was ready to fight to prevent Anjou becoming King of Spain, but England was unwilling to enter another war. Then Louis made a great mistake. James II died in France in 1701, and Louis proclaimed James's son to be King of Great Britain as James III. The whole English nation was angry and eager for war, and war was declared.

William did not live to see the outcome of the War of the Spanish Succession. In 1702, when he was out riding, his horse stumbled on a mole-hill and he was thrown and received injuries from which he died. "There have been times," said the dying King, "when I wished to die, but now I could wish to live a little longer." The Jacobites were pleased at William's death, and they sometimes drank a toast to the health of "the little gentleman in brown velvet" that had caused the accident.

William was not the kind of man ever to be popular in England. He spoke the English language badly; he was a foreigner, and he

preferred his Dutch friends to Englishmen. He was able and hard-working, but he was cold and stern in manner. He was not strong, and he suffered from asthma. Though he loved Holland he tried to do his duty fairly as King of England. He has been described as the last great man to be King of England.

His wife, Mary, was very different. She was beloved by the nation. She was gay and cheerful, gentle and kind. Her death from small-pox in 1694 was a great grief to the nation and to her husband.

Anne. William was succeeded in 1702 by Anne, the younger daughter of James II, and sister of Mary II. During nearly the whole of her reign England was fighting France in the War of the Spanish Succession, which is described in another chapter. Louis XIV was forced in 1713 to make a peace (the Peace of Utrecht) by which he recognised Anne as Queen of Great Britain and promised to banish James, the Pretender, from France.

Anne's reign is important for another reason. It was in 1707 that the Union of England and Scotland took place, the two countries forming the kingdom of Great Britain. James I had proposed this union, but neither nation would agree to it in his time.

Queen Anne was a good woman (she was known as "Good Queen Anne"), but she was dull and rather stupid. She is said to have been fond of hunting, but she went to the hunt in a carriage and not on horseback. Like her sister, she was kind and gentle, but she did not understand public affairs and was quite unfit to rule a great nation. In her reign the country was ruled by ministers, sometimes of the Whig party and at other times of the Tory party, while the Queen was surrounded by favourites who had great influence over her. Her greatest favourite was Sarah Churchill, Duchess of Marlborough. The two ladies used to write and talk to each other under the names of Mrs. Morley (the Queen) and Mrs. Freeman (the Duchess). The Duchess was proud and haughty, and at length she began to behave in such a way as to offend the Queen. In this she was foolish; she forgot that if she quarrelled with the Queen it would

be she, and not the Queen, who would have to leave the court. The Duchess was a Whig; Anne's favourite towards the end of her reign was a Tory lady, Lady Masham.

A well-known couplet by Alexander Pope describes the Queen's life at Hampton Court:

Here thou, great Anna! whom three realms obey,
Dost sometimes counsel take, and sometimes tea.

Anne was married to Prince George of Denmark, and she had as many as seventeen children. They all died in infancy except one, and he died at the age of eleven. People have smiled at the idea of such a large family, but it must have been a great grief to the poor lady to have lost all her children.

Prince George was of no importance in the country. He was fond of horse-racing and country life and would have made an excellent country squire. Charles II said of him: "I have tried him drunk and I have tried him sober, and I can find nothing in him."

Towards the end of her reign the Queen's ministers were Tories. Robert Harley was Lord High Treasurer and Lord Bolingbroke was Secretary of State. Bolingbroke wanted the Pretender, the son of James II, to succeed Queen Anne. Harley was willing to help the Pretender to obtain the throne only if he changed his religion, which he would not do. The two men quarrelled in the Queen's presence. She was much upset by the scene and was taken ill, and she died a few days later. Bolingbroke was not ready to proclaim the Pretender, and George I became King.

George I. George I was Elector of Hanover in the Holy Roman Empire. He was a great-grandson of James I, and he had been chosen to succeed Queen Anne on the throne of England because he was a Protestant while the Pretender was Roman Catholic. George was an elderly man when he became King. He was a German, with German friends and German ways of life, and he never learned more than a few words of the English language. He was not very much interested in his new kingdom. He preferred Hanover, and he was often away from England on visits

to it. He did not trouble very much about the government of England, leaving the work of ruling to his ministers. As some of the Tories were in favour of the Pretender while the Whigs were not, George appointed Whig ministers. Ministers are supposed to advise the King; if George had appointed Tory ministers they might have advised him to return to Hanover and make way for James!

Sir Robert Walpole became his chief minister in 1721. George could not speak English and Walpole could not speak German. As boys, both of them had been taught Latin. They had to brush up their knowledge of Latin and talk to each other in that language.

George I was married to a German princess, Sophia Dorothea, but she had offended him many years before he became King. He imprisoned her in a castle in Hanover in 1694, and she remained there till her death in 1726. It is even possible that he might have had her put to death if he had not been warned by a fortune-teller that he would outlive his wife, *but not for long!* He died in 1727.

George II. George II was already a grown man when his father became King of Great Britain and he became Prince of Wales. Father and son were not friendly with each other; it is said that George I hated his son and would not speak to him. Some of the King's courtiers plotted to have the Prince kidnapped and sent to the West Indies as a slave, thinking that this would please the King, but George I was very angry when he heard of it; though he disliked the Prince he would not let anybody else take part in his quarrel with his son.

The second George was as German as his father, and, like his father, he preferred Hanover to England. Unlike George I, he could speak English, though it was not very good English. His Queen, Caroline, had much influence over him, though perhaps he did not know it. She was very friendly with Sir Robert Walpole, and when Walpole wanted the King to do something, or agree to something, he would speak of it to the Queen. Caroline would suggest it to the King, who, in turn, would mention

it to Walpole as though he had thought of it himself. Walpole, of course, would agree, and would pretend that it was very clever of the King to have thought of such an idea. George did not know that people were saying:

You may strut, dapper George, but 'twill all be in vain,
We know 'tis Queen Caroline, not you, that reign.

George II was not very popular, yet Englishmen had some respect for him, for he had plenty of courage, and people will always respect a brave man. He led the British against the French at the Battle of Dettingen in 1743, and he was not afraid of the enemy. At one time in the battle his horse ran away towards the French lines and got some distance before he could pull it up. He dismounted and continued the fight on foot, saying: "Now I know that I shall not run away." During the Jacobite Rebellion of 1745, when the Young Pretender was marching towards London and had reached Derby, many people in London were alarmed, but the King was not. "Don't talk that stuff to me," he said, when he was warned of his danger.

George II was not on good terms with his son, Frederick, Prince of Wales. The King's ministers were Whig, but Frederick became friendly with the Tories and their leader, Lord Bolingbroke. The Tories hoped that when Frederick became King the Whigs would be turned out of office and that they would become his ministers. But Frederick died before his father, and what was thought of him may be judged from the lines written at the time of his death:

Here lies Fred
Who was alive and is dead.
Had it been his father
I had much rather.
Had it been his brother,
Still better than another.
Had it been his sister
No one would have missed her.
Had it been the whole generation
Still better for the nation
But since 'tis only Fred
Who was alive and is dead
There 's no more to be said.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Explain what is meant by a revolution.
2. What were the chief events in the reign of Queen Anne?
3. Why did George I, and not the Pretender, become King in 1714?
4. Write three or four lines about each of the following: Mary II, Claverhouse, Sophia Dorothea, Queen Caroline.

TIME CHART

KINGS AND QUEENS OF ENGLAND AND GREAT BRITAIN, 1485-1760

Henry VII	1485	1485. Battle of Bosworth
	1500	
Henry VIII	1509	1513. Battle of Flodden
		1534. King Head of the Church
Edward VI	1547	
Mary I	1553	
	1558	
Elizabeth		1588. Armada
	1600	
James I	1603	1605. Gunpowder Plot
	1625	
Charles I		1640. Long Parliament
Commonwealth	1649	
		1658. Death of Cromwell
	1660	1666. Great Fire of London
Charles II		
James II	1685	
William and Mary	1688	1689. The Revolution
	1694	
William III		1700
	1702	1702
Anne		1713
	1714	1715. The Fifteen
George I		
	1727	
George II		1745. The Forty-five
		1756
	1760	1763

War of the Spanish Succession

Seven Years War

CHAPTER 19

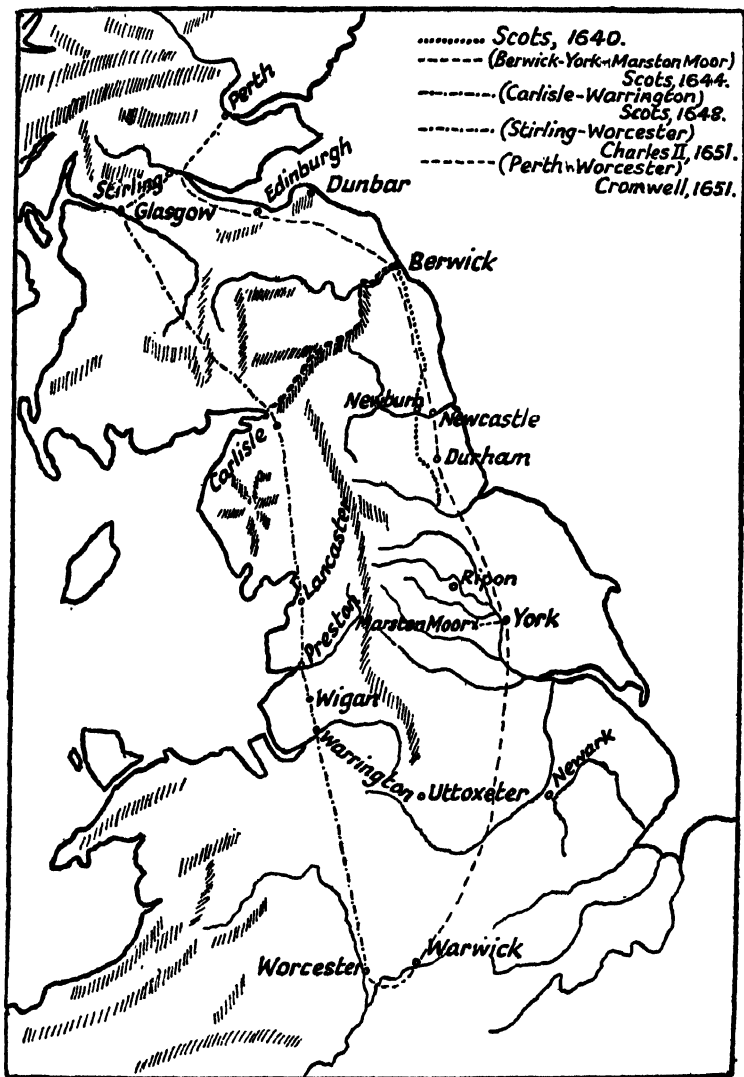
ENGLAND AND SCOTLAND IN THE STUART PERIOD

The Two Countries. England and Scotland had been unfriendly for hundreds of years, and the dislike of the two nations did not die away when James VI of Scotland became King of England. The Scots feared that they might pass under English rule, and that they would have to learn English ways and obey English laws. Englishmen did not like to see the many Scots who were coming to England with the new King, and they hated the idea of England being ruled by their old enemies.

James was wiser than his subjects, and he wanted to unite the two kingdoms into one. Neither nation would agree to this, but he took the title of King of Great Britain, and he ordered that the flag of England (the cross of St. George) should be combined with the flag of Scotland (the cross of St. Andrew) to form a flag of Great Britain.

James I and Charles I wished also to unite the Scottish Church with the Church of England. Though the Scottish Church was Presbyterian James appointed bishops in it. Charles appointed more bishops, and tried to make the Scots use a prayer-book like the English Book of Common Prayer. This led to a rebellion in Scotland in 1639, and an invasion of England in 1640.

The Four Scottish Invasions of England. Between 1640 and 1651 Scottish armies invaded England four times. In 1640 the Scots overran the counties of Northumberland and Durham, and remained there until the King had agreed to let the Scottish Church remain Presbyterian. Four years later, when the Great Rebellion was going on in England, a Scottish army entered England to fight with Parliament against the King. When the war was lost Charles rode into the camp of the Scots, hoping that they would change sides and fight for him. Instead, they gave him over to Parliament and returned to their own land.



THE FOUR SCOTTISH INVASIONS OF ENGLAND

They invaded England a third time in 1648, this time to fight for the King, but they were defeated and driven out by Cromwell. After the death of Charles I the Scots accepted Charles II as their King; and though they were defeated by Cromwell at Dunbar they invaded England for the fourth time in 1651, but were defeated at Worcester.

The Conquest of Scotland. By his victories at Dunbar and Worcester Cromwell had conquered Scotland. In the many wars of past times between England and Scotland the Scots had often been defeated, but they had never been completely conquered, not even by Edward I. Cromwell had done what English kings had failed to do. Scotland was not only conquered, but was united to England. An army was left in Scotland under General Monk to prevent any rising.

For nine years Scotland was part of the Commonwealth, and though this was a blow to their pride the Scots prospered through their connection with England. As Scotland was now part of England Scottish merchants were allowed to trade with English colonies. When Charles II was restored this trade was cut off.

The Revolution in Scotland. In 1688 William of Orange was invited to come to England, and after James II had fled to France William and Mary became King and Queen of England. The Scots had sent no invitation to William, and they might have continued to regard James as their King. But they offered the crown of Scotland to William and Mary, as had been done in England. Some of the Highlanders rose for James under Graham of Claverhouse, but after the Battle of Killiecrankie they went home, and the country submitted to William's rule.

The Massacre of Glencoe. William decided not to punish any of the clans which had taken up arms under Claverhouse if the chieftains took an oath to be faithful to him, provided that the oath was taken before the end of the year 1691. All of them took the oath except MacIain, chief of the MacDonalds of Glencoe. MacIain intended to take the oath, but put off doing so until the last day; perhaps he took pride in being "the last to bend the

knee to the Southron." On 31st December, 1691, he attended at Fort William in Argyllshire to take the oath. He was told that he must take the oath before a magistrate, that there was no magistrate at Fort William, and that the nearest magistrate was at Inverary. He was alarmed, and tramped across the snow to Inverary, reaching it and taking the oath on 6th January, 1692—six days late! This would not have mattered had not Sir John Dalrymple, an enemy of the MacDonalds, told William that MacIan had not taken the oath by the last day. The King was made to understand that the MacDonalds were still in rebellion, and he signed an order for destroying "that nest of vipers."

Dalrymple sent the order to the Campbells, and some of the men of this clan visited Glencoe and were entertained for several days by the MacDonalds. One night they rose from their beds and turned on the MacDonalds, killing many of them, and burning their homes; others fled into the hills and perished in the snow. It was some time before the news of the Massacre of Glencoe reached England. William dismissed Dalrymple from his service, but the King himself was not blameless for the massacre, since he should have inquired more fully before signing the order.

Some of the people of Scotland blamed the English for the massacre. It is hard to see why. The order was signed by William, a Dutchman, as King of Scotland, on the advice of Dalrymple, a Scot, and it was carried out by members of a Scottish clan, the Campbells. Englishmen did not appear in the matter at all.

The Darien Scheme. As the Scots were not allowed to trade with English colonies they wanted to establish a colony of their own. A Darien Company was formed to make a settlement on the Isthmus of Darien, or Panama, in Central America, where is now the Panama Canal, and money was invested with the Company by people of all parts of Scotland. A new way for trading with the East was to be opened. A road would be made across the isthmus, and ports would be built at each end of the road. Goods would be carried between Scotland and India by crossing

the Atlantic, the isthmus, and the Pacific. Ships would have to be unloaded when they reached the isthmus; the goods would be taken across the isthmus on mule-back; and they would be shipped again on the other side. Ships and mules would have loads in both directions. It was believed that much of the trade of the East would pass through Darien, and that Scotland would be enriched.

The scheme was not a good one. The distance across the Pacific was not known; even the road across the isthmus would be fully a hundred and fifty miles long and would have to cross mountains and rivers; and the climate was unhealthy for white men, many of whom died of fever and other diseases. Further, the Darien region belonged to Spain, and the Spaniards attacked the Scottish settlers, just as the Scots would have attacked the Spaniards if they had attempted to make a settlement in any part of Scotland.

The colony was an utter failure, and the money invested in it was lost. Many people in Scotland were ruined. The Scots blamed the English for the failure of the scheme; they thought that if help had been given by the people of Jamaica and other English islands in the West Indies it might have succeeded.

The Threat of Separation. In 1701 the English Parliament passed an act (the Act of Settlement) by which Queen Anne would be succeeded by her cousin, Sophia of Hanover. (Sophia died before Anne, who was actually succeeded by Sophia's son, George I.) It was hoped that Scotland would follow the English example, as was done in 1689, but in 1703 the Scottish Parliament passed an Act of Security, by which it was declared that the person who followed Queen Anne on the throne of England should not succeed to the throne of Scotland. This act was passed because, after the Darien failure, many Scots wanted to break away entirely from the English connection.

England did not want the connection broken, but at that time she was fighting France in the War of the Spanish Succession. In 1704 Marlborough gained his great victory over the French at Blenheim, and the English Government felt that it could now

spare forces to deal with Scotland. Troops were sent to the north of England, and it seemed likely that a war would break out in which Scotland would certainly be conquered. In order to avoid this, both countries sent some of their leading men to a meeting in which it was proposed that the two countries should be united. The Union was agreed upon, and England and Scotland were united on the 1st May, 1707.

The Union of England and Scotland. The united country was to be called Great Britain, and it was to have one sovereign, one army, one Parliament, and one flag. The Scottish Act of Security was dropped, and after the death of Queen Anne George I became King of Great Britain. The flag was to be that which had been in use since the time of James I. Scotland was to keep her own religion and her own laws, and England paid £400,000 to the people who had lost money in the Darien Scheme.

Both countries accepted the Union as being better than war between them, but for many years neither England nor Scotland really liked it. Yet it has been a very good thing for both. Neither country has overcome the other; Englishmen are still English and Scots are still Scottish, and they have learned to respect each other. The Scots henceforth shared in English trade, and grew richer. England had a friend instead of an enemy on the northern border. Together they have gone on to the building of the British Empire, and to becoming one of the most important nations of the world.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Why and how did the Massacre of Glencoe take place?
2. What were (a) the good points, and (b) the bad points, of the Darien Scheme?
3. What were the terms of the Union of England and Scotland?
4. Describe the Union flag in the seventeenth century. When was it first used, and when was it ordered by Parliament?
5. (a) Why did the English dislike the Scots, and (b) why did the Scots dislike the English?

CHAPTER 20

IRELAND

Ireland in Early Times. In early times there were five kingdoms in Ireland—Ulster, Munster, Connaught, Leinster, and Meath. Each of these provinces had its king, and as one of the kings might be stronger than the rest he was the High King. Probably these kings had very little power. There were in Ireland many tribes, or septs, and the people obeyed their own chieftains rather than any of the kings. The country was never peaceful; there was always, in some part of the land, fighting between chieftains, and often between the kings.

The Norman Conquest of Ireland. During the reign of Henry II of England a King of Leinster, Dermot by name, was beaten in battle by another king, and he fled into England. He persuaded a Norman noble, Richard Strongbow, Earl of Pembroke, to help him. Strongbow, with other Normans, went to Ireland and restored Dermot to his throne; as a reward, he was allowed to marry Dermot's daughter, Eva, and it was arranged that he should succeed Dermot as King of Leinster. It is possible that if he had been left alone Strongbow might have made himself King of all Ireland, and have begun a line of kings which would have made Ireland a strong and prosperous kingdom, just as William the Norman did for England. But Strongbow was not left alone. Henry II would not let one of his nobles go overseas and found a mighty kingdom for himself, as Duke William had done. The King of France had not been strong enough to prevent William from becoming King of England; Henry was quite powerful enough to prevent Strongbow from becoming King of Ireland.

Henry ordered Strongbow to submit to him, and he obeyed. Henry crossed to Ireland; many Irish chiefs, besides Strongbow, came and submitted to him as their master, and he took the

title of Lord of Ireland. In after years many other Norman nobles went to Ireland and conquered lands for themselves, building castles and ruling the people on their lands. For more than three centuries after Strongbow's adventure English kings took little interest in Ireland, and the great lords ruled as they pleased.

The Fitzgeralds. At the beginning of the Tudor period the Fitzgeralds—descendants of one of Strongbow's companions—were the most powerful family in Ireland. There were two branches of this family. At the head of one branch was the Earl of Kildare, whose lands were in Leinster; the estates of the Earl of Desmond, the chief of the other branch of the Fitzgeralds, were in Munster. Between Kildare and Desmond lay the lands of the family of Butler, whose head was the Earl of Ormond. The Butlers hated the Fitzgeralds, and if either family should rebel against the King it was certain that the other would fight for him. During the Wars of the Roses the Fitzgeralds had been Yorkists; the Earl of Ormond, therefore, was a Lancastrian.

Tudor kings took more interest in Ireland than those of earlier times, and as the country was too far away for them to rule it they had to appoint a Lord Deputy to rule it for them. Henry VII was told that the Fitzgeralds were very powerful, and that "All Ireland cannot rule the Earl of Kildare." "Then," replied the King, "let the Earl of Kildare rule all Ireland," and Kildare was made Lord Deputy. This did not make him very loyal; he even gave some help to Lambert Simnel. But Kildare was able henceforth to carry on his quarrels with other nobles and chieftains in the King's name, and he seems to have kept Ireland in some sort of order.

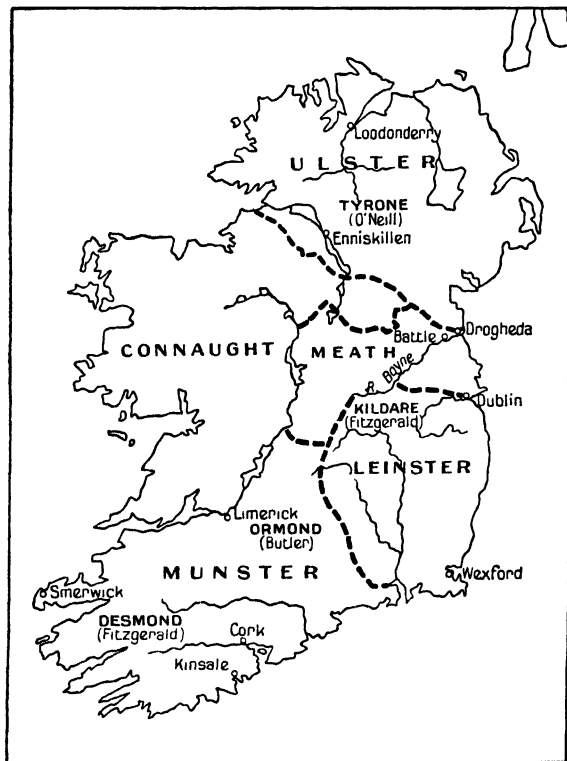
When Kildare died in 1513 he was succeeded as Lord Deputy by his son, the ninth Earl of Kildare. Henry VIII was now King, and the Earl was not very loyal to him. Three times he was ordered to come to London and explain his conduct. Twice he was allowed to return to Ireland; on the third occasion he was sent to the Tower. His son, Thomas, known as Silken Thomas,

believed that the Earl had been put to death. He took the title of Earl of Kildare, and with his five uncles, the brothers of the imprisoned Earl, he revolted against Henry. Sir William Skeffington crushed the rebellion and captured Silken Thomas and his uncles, all of whom were brought to London and hanged at Tyburn. Silken Thomas left a young son, now the eleventh Earl, who escaped to France. But the power of the Fitzgeralds of Kildare was broken, and the affair proved that Henry was strong enough to overthrow any rebellious Irish noble, however powerful he might be.

The Reformation in Ireland. After Henry VIII had declared himself to be Head of the Church of England he was proclaimed to be also Head of the Church of Ireland. Irish monasteries were dissolved, and much of their land was given to Irish chiefs, to some of whom were given the title of earl as well. The many Irish nobles who received lands and titles from the King were, no doubt, quite satisfied with what he had done. Before the end of his reign Henry took the title of King of Ireland.

The Desmond Rebellion. There were two serious rebellions in Ireland in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, and both of them received help from Spain. For some years there had been unrest in Munster, and in 1579 revolt broke out. The Earl of Desmond, head of this branch of the Fitzgeralds, had lived for many years in London, and he was not as eager as his brothers to lead a revolt. An English officer was sent to him to try to persuade him to remain loyal; while he was the Earl's guest this officer was murdered by the Earl's brother. Desmond was thus forced into the rebellion. In 1580 a Spanish force landed at Smerwick to help the rebels, but it was at once besieged by Lord Grey, the Lord Deputy, with Sir Walter Raleigh and Sir Philip Sidney. The Spaniards were forced to surrender, and they were all put to death. This cruel act was followed by the ravaging of a great part of Munster by the English and the Butlers of Ormond. Every house and hut and stack was burnt, and nearly every

living thing, man, woman, or animal, was destroyed. The men who did this were actually rewarded by the Queen with grants of land in Munster; Raleigh was given 40,000 acres.



IRELAND

The O'Neill Rebellion. The other outbreak was in Ulster, where in 1597 Hugh O'Neill, Earl of Tyrone, revolted. He was the first man to try to rouse all Ireland against the English. He sent a body of men to Munster to drive out the English settlers and to burn their houses, and he defeated more than one English

force sent against him. The Earl of Essex went to Ireland with 16,000 men, but O'Neill avoided a pitched battle with him, and Essex returned to England, where he fell into disgrace and lost his head. Instead of trying to catch O'Neill Essex should have marched into Ulster; this would have forced O'Neill to return in order to defend his lands.

In 1601 a Spanish force landed at Kinsale, in the south of Ireland, to help the rebels. It was besieged by the English, and when O'Neill went to its relief he was defeated. Lord Mountjoy, who went to Ireland after the failure of Essex, ravaged the land and compelled O'Neill to submit. He promised to be loyal, and was allowed to keep his title and lands.

This was in 1603. O'Neill's loyalty did not last long. In 1607 he was again in revolt, and this time he was forced to fly overseas. His lands were forfeited and were given to English and Scottish settlers. These men worked hard, and in course of time they completely changed Ulster, which, in place of being wild and lawless, became the most peaceful and prosperous part of Ireland. The effect of this Plantation of Ulster is seen even to-day; while the rest of Ireland is Catholic and Irish a large part of Ulster is Protestant, and many of its people are of English or Scottish descent.

Wentworth's Rule. Charles I sent his friend Sir Thomas Wentworth to rule Ireland as Lord Deputy. He was one of the few men who have been able to rule Ireland firmly and to keep order from end to end of the country. He raised and trained an Irish army, and he founded the Irish linen industry. The country was peaceful, and it prospered. Wentworth was hated by the Irish—yet if he had been succeeded by a line of strong rulers it would have been for the good of Ireland. He was recalled in 1640, and, as described elsewhere, was put to death by the Long Parliament.

The Rebellion of 1641–9. No firm ruler followed to carry on Wentworth's work, and in 1641 the Irish revolted. This was the first really national rebellion of the Irish against the English.

In all the earlier revolts Irish had fought against Irish, as well as against the English.

The Irish rebels were Catholic; most of the English and Scottish settlers were Protestant. The rebels massacred thousands of them, and took their lands. But quarrels soon appeared among the rebels; one group claimed to be fighting for the King, another against him. And so blood was shed for years.

After the death of King Charles in 1649 Cromwell crossed over to Ireland with some regiments of the New Model Army. The royalist section of the Irish, under the Earl of Ormond, opposed him. Ormond placed his men in some of the east-coast towns, and Cromwell first marched against Drogheda and ordered its garrison to surrender. It refused, and Cromwell stormed the town and put the defenders—more than two thousand in number—to the sword. Some of the soldiers fled into a church tower, which was set on fire, so that they, too, perished. Cromwell then went to Wexford, and did the same thing there. Other towns surrendered when they were called upon to do so, and the rebellion came to an end. Ormond fled overseas, and some other leaders were caught and hanged. The lands of the Irish rebels were given to Englishmen, many of them soldiers who had served in the New Model Army. Cromwell's acts against the Irish were not more harsh and cruel than those of the English at some other times. He kept his troops in order, and, apart from the actual fighting, he would not let them harm the people. Many more Irish were slain when the Desmond revolt was crushed than in the time of Cromwell. Yet the name of Cromwell is still hated by the Irish, and even to-day an Irishman can think of nothing worse to say to an enemy than "The curse of Cromwell on ye."

The Period of Peace. When Charles II recovered his father's throne the Irish royalists who had lost their lands expected to receive them back. Yet the King did not wish to turn out the English who were already settled in Ireland. There was not enough land to satisfy everybody, and the settlers had to give up a part of their grants to those whom the King wished to reward.

Between Cromwell's conquest of Ireland and the Revolution of 1689 there was a period of forty years of peace in Ireland. Native Irish and English settlers lived side by side, and there was no great outbreak. Most of the Irish followed the Roman Catholic religion, for even if this was not allowed by law nothing was done to stop it. The settlers, English and Scottish, belonged to the Church of Ireland or were Presbyterians.

The Revolution in Ireland. At the end of 1688 James II fled to France, and early in 1689 William and Mary became King and Queen of this country. As stated elsewhere, the King of France, Louis XIV, was ready to help James to recover his throne, and as James was a Roman Catholic the two kings thought it would be best to begin their work by invading Ireland. James, with a small French force, landed at Kinsale in the summer of 1689. Many Irish joined him, and he marched to Dublin. There he held a Parliament of Roman Catholics which did two things. It ordered that the lands of English and Scottish settlers in Ireland should be forfeited, and it passed an Act of Attainder against 2,300 Protestants, most of whom were the men who were to lose their lands. They were to be put to death—when they were caught! But they were not caught; they fled in haste into Ulster, where they held the two cities of Londonderry and Enniskillen. James advanced, and his forces besieged the two towns. Enniskillen relieved itself when its defenders broke out and gave battle to the enemy, defeating them and driving them away. The siege of Londonderry was a more serious affair. The walls were in a bad state, and food was short. The commander of the troops in the city was ready to yield to James, but he was deprived of his command and a clergyman, George Walker, took over the defence. Walker had the walls repaired, and in every way he encouraged the citizens to hold out. Londonderry is near the mouth of the river Foyle, and the besiegers had stretched a boom of chains across the river to prevent food ships from sailing in. The City of London sent three ships with provisions for the people of Londonderry. For a few days they waited in Lough Foyle, but at length one of the ships sailed at the boom

and broke it down. The ships sailed in, the city was relieved, and the besiegers retired. The brave Walker was made Bishop of Londonderry, but he was killed at the Battle of the Boyne.

While these towns were being besieged, an English army landed in Ireland and encamped on the bank of the river Boyne. William came over in 1690, and the Battle of the Boyne took place. James was defeated and fled; it is said that his Irish troops were so disgusted with him that they shouted to the English: "Change kings, and we'll fight you again." James reached Dublin, where he met an Irish lady to whom he explained his defeat by saying: "My Irish troops ran away." She replied: "Your Majesty seems to have won the race." The panic-stricken king did not stay in Dublin, but went on to Kinsale and took ship to France. There was further fighting before Ireland was conquered. The last Irish surrendered at Limerick, where those who wished to do so were allowed to go abroad and fight for Louis XIV in his wars. (The departure of these men has been known in Ireland as "The Flight of the Wild Geese"). An Irish brigade of 12,000 men fought for France in the Wars of the League of Augsburg and the Spanish Succession; their leader, Patrick Sarsfield, became a Marshal of France, and was killed in battle.

The Penal Laws. Ireland was conquered, and before long a Parliament—of Protestants this time—met at Dublin. During the next few years many laws were passed against the Roman Catholic Irish. A Roman Catholic might not buy land, and if he had a landed estate it was to be divided among his sons when he died. But if one son turned Protestant he obtained the whole estate, and his brothers got nothing. A Roman Catholic might not be a member of Parliament, nor a lawyer, nor a schoolmaster, nor an officer in the army, nor even a gamekeeper (because a gamekeeper carried a gun). A Roman Catholic might not send his children abroad to be educated; they must either be taught by Protestant schoolmasters in Ireland or remain ignorant. A Roman Catholic might not wear a sword; at that time it was usual for every gentleman to have a sword at

his side. A Roman Catholic might not own a horse worth more than five pounds; anybody might obtain a horse from its Roman Catholic owner by offering him five pounds for it. (It is said that a Protestant once stopped a Roman Catholic gentleman who was on horseback and made him the usual offer, at the same time placing his hand on the horse's bridle. The owner of the horse drew a pistol and shot the Protestant dead. When he was tried for murder he was found not guilty, because although the law said that the Protestant might buy the horse for five pounds it said nothing about the bridle, and the accused man had a right to defend his property—the bridle—against a thief.) Marriage between a Roman Catholic and a Protestant was illegal; the priest who celebrated such a marriage might be hanged. Roman Catholic priests might remain in Ireland, but bishops were ordered to leave. As only a bishop could ordain a man to be a priest it was expected that in time the line of priests would die out. But this did not happen, for bishops remained in Ireland, in poverty and in hiding.

These were cruel laws, and it is not easy to defend them. But it should be remembered that they were passed against the Roman Catholic Irish by Protestant Parliaments whose members had lived in the year 1689; the names of some of these members had been in the Act of Attainder of that year. They felt that they must keep the Roman Catholics down if their own lives and lands were to be safe. If the Roman Catholics had had their way in 1689 the Protestants of Ireland would have been massacred and their property taken. When the Protestants gained the upper hand they did not pass an Act of Attainder against the Roman Catholics, but they did pass laws which they thought to be necessary to protect themselves and their property. It was not until late in the eighteenth century that the harshest of these laws were repealed, and the bitterness of feeling between Irish Roman Catholics and Irish Protestants has not died away even to-day.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Which English kings first took the titles of (a) Lord of Ireland, and (b) King of Ireland? Why did they take these titles?

2. Write four or five lines about each of the Earls of Kildare from the eighth earl to the eleventh.

3. Who was the best ruler of Ireland in the Tudor and Stuart periods? What did he do for the country?

4. Describe the Siege of Londonderry in 1689.

5. What were the Penal Laws? Make a list of six of them.

CHAPTER 21

THE STUARTS IN EXILE

James II	1689-1701
The Pretender ("James III")	1701-66
The Young Pretender ("Charles III")	1766-88
The Cardinal ("Henry IX")	1788-1807

The Jacobites. After the flight of James II in 1688 there were some people in England, and more in Scotland and Ireland, who wished for his return. They were known as Jacobites, or followers of James (the Latin word for James is "Jacobus"). The Whigs were entirely in favour of the Revolution and of having William as King. The Tories were divided; some of them were Jacobites and wanted James to come back, but others were against him because he was a Roman Catholic while they supported the Church of England. The Jacobites could not speak and work openly for the return of the exiled King because to do so would be treason against the King who was on the throne.

James II. When James fled to France he did not intend to stay there for the rest of his life. He expected to be able to recover his throne with the help of Louis XIV. Louis was willing to lend soldiers to James, and the two kings decided to begin by conquering Ireland. The story of James's adventures in Ireland, including the sieges of Londonderry and Enniskillen and the Battle of the Boyne, has been told in another chapter. After his defeat at the Boyne in 1690 he returned to France and never made any other serious effort to recover his throne. Louis gave him a large annual income, and also a palace at St. Germain to live in, and he lived there comfortably for the rest of his life.

The Pretender ("James III"). The son of James II was thirteen years old when his father died. He was commonly known in England as the Pretender, and, after the birth of his son, Charles

Edward, as the Old Pretender, though he was still at that time a young man. Charles Edward was, of course, the Young Pretender.

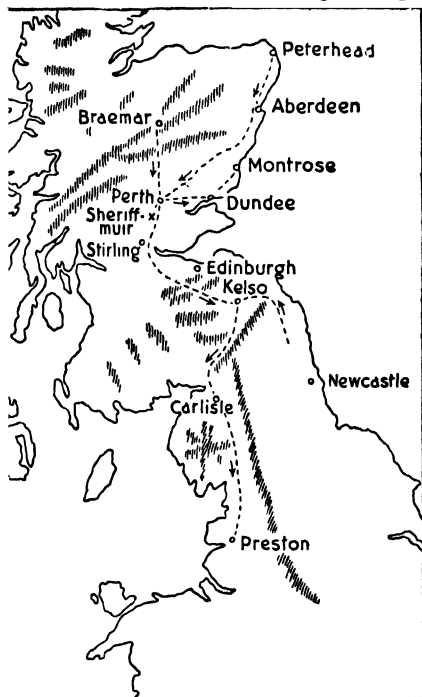
There was little chance of the young James being invited to return to England and ascend his father's throne. William III died in 1702, and was succeeded by Queen Anne, a daughter of James II and half-sister of the Pretender, but not a Roman Catholic. During nearly the whole of Anne's reign England was at war with France, and when James was old enough he fought, and fought bravely, with the French armies against the English in the Battles of Oudenarde and Malplaquet.

Towards the end of her life it was believed that Queen Anne wanted her half-brother, and not the Elector of Hanover, to succeed her. Probably the poor Queen could not make up her mind what she wanted. She would rather be succeeded by James than by George—but James was a Roman Catholic, and Anne was devoted to the Church of England. Her Tory Secretary of State, Lord Bolingbroke, was willing to proclaim the Pretender when Anne died, but certain preparations had to be made first, and the Queen died before Bolingbroke was ready. The Whigs were ready, and German George became King of Great Britain.

The Fifteen. The Jacobites had not been ready in 1714; they made their attempt in 1715. Bolingbroke had left England soon after the accession of George I, and had joined James on the Continent. He planned the rebellion of 1715, and expected help from Louis XIV, but the old King of France died before the rising started, and no French help was given.

Nearly everything went wrong with the revolt. In the Lowlands of Scotland it was led by Lord Kenmure. He had no clear plan, and he crossed the border to join a band of rebels in the north of England under Thomas Forster, a squire of Northumberland, and the Earl of Derwentwater. They returned to Scotland, and at Kelso they were joined by two thousand men under Brigadier Mackintosh. The whole force now marched by way of Cumberland into Lancashire. At Preston they were surrounded by Government troops, and were forced to surrender.

In the Highlands of Scotland the rising was led by the Earl of Mar, who was known as "Bobbing John," because not long before the rebellion he had been on the side of King George, and it was felt that he might go over to that side again. Mar invited his Jacobite friends to meet at Braemar for a hunting party. The hunting party soon became a small army with which Mar marched towards Perth. He might have taken Edinburgh if he had moved quickly, but he waited at Perth while the Duke of Argyll, a Whig noble and head of the Campbell clan, gathered his forces. Mar had three times as many men as Argyll, but he did not know how to lead them. The Battle of Sheriffmuir, between Mar and Argyll, was not a clear victory for either side, but Mar retired to Perth.



THE JACOBITE RISING OF 1715

There 's some say that we wan, some say that they wan,
 Some say that nane wan at a', man;
 But one thing I 'm sure, that at Sheriffmuir
 A battle there was which I saw, man:
 And we ran, and they ran, and they ran, and we ran,
 And we ran; and they ran awa', man.

The Pretender, for whose arrest the Government offered a reward of £100,000, landed at Peterhead, too late to lead the rebellion. He was brave and honourable, but he was not the

kind of man to inspire his followers, and he rarely smiled. When he heard of Mar's failure at Sheriffmuir he said, sorrowfully: "It is no new thing for me to fail." This was not the way to encourage men who were already disheartened. He joined Mar at Perth, but when Argyll advanced to take the town James and Mar retreated to Montrose and took ship to France. The rebellion was over.

Why did it fail? It seemed to have every chance of success. The Union of England and Scotland had taken place only eight years earlier; many of the Scots hated it and might be expected to be willing to fight for James. Nor did men, in England or in Scotland, fight against James for love of George. George was elderly and a German, and his character was not at all good; James was young and an Englishman, he was everything that a king should be, and he belonged to a line that had ruled Scotland for more than three hundred years and England for nearly a century. But many Scots would not fight for a Roman Catholic, and Englishmen were resolved never again to have a Roman Catholic king. If James had been willing to change his religion many more people would have joined him, but he would not. Apart from all this, the rising was badly planned and badly led, and for that reason it was bound to fail.

The rebels were guilty of high treason, but only a few of the leaders were put to death. The Earl of Derwentwater and Lord Kenmure lost their heads, and the Earl of Nithsdale was sentenced to death. While awaiting execution in the Tower of London he was visited late one evening by his wife, accompanied by other ladies. Lady Nithsdale wore two dresses and two cloaks; she removed one dress and one cloak, and her husband put them on over the clothes he was wearing. The "ladies" then left the room and slowly made their way out of the Tower, with handkerchiefs to their eyes, as though they were weeping over the sad fate of the Earl. The guards had taken little notice of the number of ladies who had entered the Tower, which was dimly lighted, and they did not observe the number who left. Nithsdale thus escaped, and he and his wife made their way to France.

Between the Fifteen and the Forty-five. During the next thirty years there was no serious attempt to restore the Pretender to the throne. The country was ruled for most of this time by Walpole; it was peaceful and prosperous, and few people really wished for a change of king.

In 1719 James married a Polish princess, and in 1720 his son, Charles Edward, was born, and was given the title of Prince of Wales. Another boy, Henry, was born in 1725, and was made Duke of York. By this time James lived at Rome, where he remained for the rest of his life.

Many country squires in England were still Jacobite at heart, and it was common for them, when they were called upon to drink to the health of the King, to have bowls of water before them on the table. Then, when they stood, they toasted "The King"—over the water! A witty Jacobite wrote:

God bless the King—I mean the Faith's Defender.
God bless—no harm in blessing—the Pretender.
But who Pretender is, or who is King—
God bless us all—that's quite another thing.

Jacobites at this time were ready to show their loyalty to the exile in these ways; they were not willing to risk their lives by rising in revolt for him.



Edward H. Gooch

THE ESCAPE OF LORD NITHSDALE FROM
THE TOWER

The Forty-five. After the retirement of Walpole in 1742 England was again at war with France. Charles Edward was now grown up, and he was eager to make an attempt to recover the throne for his father. He expected French help, but though a French fleet was prepared for an invasion of England this was an ordinary act of war, and was not merely to help the Stuarts. The fleet was scattered by a storm, and England was not invaded.

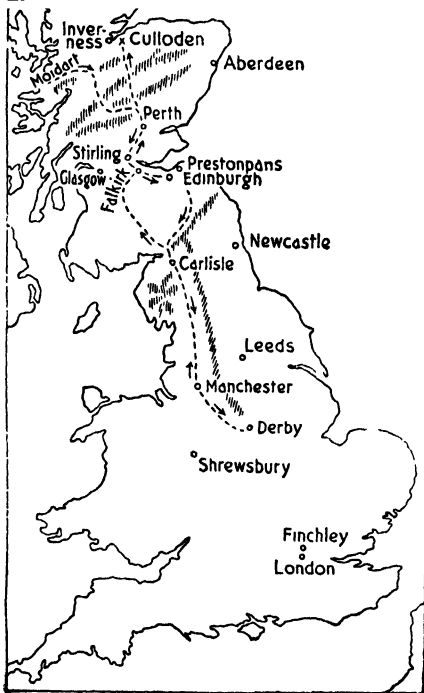
Charles resolved to act without French help. With seven companions he sailed from France, and reached the Isle of Eriskay, in the Hebrides. For the conquest of two kingdoms his force was certainly not large. No plan had been made, and probably none of the Jacobites knew that he was coming. But Charles was the perfect leader—far better than his father—for what seemed a hopeless adventure. He was brave, gay, and charming, and he inspired everybody whom he met with zeal for his cause. Not for nothing was he called “Bonnie Prince Charlie.”

On Eriskay he met a local laird named MacDonald, who advised him to go home. “I am come home,” he replied. Instead of returning to France he crossed from Eriskay to the mainland, landing at Moidart. Before long, men were gathering round him. Others held back at first because his cause seemed hopeless, but he was lucky enough to defeat a small body of troops which had been sent against him at Corrie Arrack, and clan after clan joined him. The Government had no large forces in Scotland, and the Prince was able to advance almost without hindrance. His forces grew larger every day; he reached Perth, and only a few weeks after his landing he was in Edinburgh. He took up his residence at Holyrood and proclaimed his father as James III of England and VIII of Scotland. The Government of George II offered a reward of £30,000 for his arrest; he replied by offering a reward of £30,000 for the arrest of the “Elector of Hanover.”

Edinburgh Castle was still held by Government troops, and, in fact, was never taken by the Prince. Provisions ran short in the Castle, and the Governor demanded that he should be supplied with food; otherwise he threatened to sally forth and burn Auld

Reekie (Edinburgh). Provisions were sent up to the Castle every day!

A small English army under Sir John Cope landed at Dunbar to retake Edinburgh, but Charles and his Highlanders marched out and routed the little force in the Battle of Prestonpans. The regular soldiers could not withstand the wild Highland charge, and they fled towards England. It is said that Cope led the flight—the only British general to be the first to announce his own defeat (though James II did the same after the Battle of the Boyne). In his account of the battle the Prince wrote of the Government troops: "They ran like rabbits" (it seems that his spelling was weak). For the time Scotland was lost to King George.



THE JACOBITE RISING OF 1745

Charles now prepared to conquer England. After nearly two months at Holyrood he set out and entered England by the western route. Two hundred men joined him at Manchester, but he gained no other help from England. The men who every day drank to "the King over the water" did not take up arms for his son. The Prince's charm of manner failed as completely in England as it had succeeded in Scotland. Except at Carlisle he met with no opposition. Men in the fields stopped working and

watched the Highlanders pass; they did not fight them; they did not join them; when the Scots had passed they went on working. The Scots became depressed and dispirited. If they had had to fight their way they would have been happier, but being treated as if they were of no importance was too much for them. And every day they were getting farther from their native hills!

The Prince's delay at Edinburgh had given the Government a chance to gather its forces. Troops were brought back from the Continent, where they had been fighting the French. There was now an army in Yorkshire, another in the west of England, and a third to the north of London. When the Prince reached Derby, two-thirds of the way from Edinburgh to London, he held a council of war to decide whether to go on or to return to Scotland. Charles himself wanted to advance. "Rather than go back I would go ten feet underground," he said. But many of the Highland chiefs advised him to retreat, and, against his will, he retreated.

Was he right? To go on seemed hopeless; yet his luck might still have held good and he might have defeated his enemies and reached London. It is much more likely that his forces would have been surrounded and destroyed, but this would have been no worse than the fate they met with at Culloden a few months later. And if he had fallen in battle with his face towards London this would have been a worthy ending for the House of Stuart.

When he reached Scotland the Prince found that in his absence the Government troops had recovered Edinburgh and Stirling. In a battle at Falkirk an English force under General Hawley was scattered by the charge of the Highlanders, but the Prince continued to retire northwards towards Inverness. Many of the clansmen left him and returned to their homes. The Duke of Cumberland followed with a large army and took up his quarters at Aberdeen. Cumberland trained his men to withstand the Highland charge by ordering each soldier to thrust his bayonet not against the man in front of him but against the man to his right. When Cumberland marched out to meet the Prince at Culloden Moor in April, 1746, these tactics were successful.

The Highlanders failed to break the main ranks of the Government troops, and the revolt was at an end.

Cumberland was very brutal after the battle. Hundreds of the wounded men were put to death; others were left to die on the battlefield; over a large part of the Highlands crops and cattle were destroyed and houses were burned, and many poor people were driven out to perish. When Cumberland returned to London it was proposed that, as a compliment to him upon his

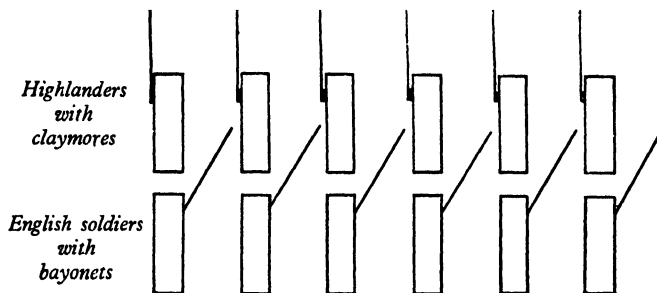


DIAGRAM OF THE FIGHTING AT CULLODEN

When the Highlander raised his claymore his right side was unprotected. Each English soldier thrust his bayonet at the Highlander on his right.

victory, he should be made a member of one of the City Companies. Somebody suggested that the Butchers' Company would be the most suitable! And Cumberland has since then been known as "The Butcher." Yet many people in England were delighted with his victory, and they called him, like the flower, "Sweet William."

The reward of £30,000 for the arrest of the Prince was still being offered. He was in hiding, but no Highlander was mean enough to betray him, though many of them must have known where he was. He was disguised as an Irish maidservant in the service of a lady, Flora MacDonald, who helped him to escape. At length he was able to take ship to France.

The rebellion never had any real chance of success. Even if Charles had reached London he would not therefore have won.

He could not have made his father King if the English people were determined not to have him. His small force of Highlanders could not have held London for long; in any case they



Edward H. Gooch

CHARLES EDWARD AND FLORA MACDONALD

would want to return home. And what would have happened then?

The rebellion of 1745 was the last real effort of the Stuarts to recover the crown of Great Britain. From this time James had no further hope of returning to England, and he lived quietly at Rome till his death in 1766. If he had really reigned in Great

Britain from the time of his father's death till his own death, his reign, of over sixty-four years, would have been the longest in British history—longer even than that of Victoria.

The Young Pretender ("Charles III"). When his father died Charles Edward assumed the title of king. By this time he had become a drunkard and had lost most of his friends. When the American colonies revolted from Great Britain in 1776 Charles hoped to become King of the United States, but there was never any chance of this. He married late in life, and he left no son to succeed him.

The Cardinal ("Henry IX"). Charles's younger brother, Henry, Duke of York, became a Roman Catholic priest and, later, a cardinal. He was, of course, unmarried, and was therefore the last of the Stuarts. He took the title of King and lived at Rome in the state which befitted a king. He made no attempt to gain the throne; any such attempt would have been useless. If the people of this country would not accept his father or his brother it is quite certain they would not have a cardinal of the Roman Catholic Church on the throne. In the last few years of his life he became very poor, and he was granted a pension by the British Government. With his death in 1807 the House of Stuart came to an end.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Why did the 1715 rising fail? Give three or four reasons.
2. Write a short account of the rising of 1745.
3. Explain why the rising of 1745 could not have succeeded.
4. Write four or five lines about each of the following: Sir John Cope, Lord Nithsdale, George Walker, Cardinal Henry of York.
5. What happened at Enniskillen, Preston, Eriskay, Prestonpans, Derby, Culloden?

CHAPTER 22

WHIG RULE

Whigs and Tories. The Revolution of 1688-9 was carried out by both Whigs and Tories, but it is regarded as a Whig Revolution because the Whig party was entirely against the return of the Stuart kings, while many of the Tories were Jacobites. Until the Tories had given up wishing to see a Stuart king on the throne they could not be trusted to rule the country. For most of the time in the reigns of William III and Anne, and for the whole of the reigns of George I and George II, the country was ruled by the Whigs.

People sometimes think that the Whig and Tory parties were the same as the Liberal and Conservative parties of more recent times. But, though Peel changed the name of his party from Tory to Conservative, and the Whigs became the Liberal party in the time of Gladstone, the Conservatives and Liberals are not like the Tories and Whigs of the eighteenth century. Neither Whigs nor Tories expected the common people to share in the Government. They did not believe that every man, much less every woman, should have a vote at elections, and they did not want to undertake great reforms in the country. They were parties of rich men—landowners and merchants.

Whig policy. Whig statesmen thought that the best way of ruling the country was to leave it alone (and if the Tories had been in power they would have acted in much the same way). If a war broke out they would fight it in order to win it. If there was a riot or a rebellion they would have it put down. But they did not think out great plans for improving the condition of the people; if things were bad they would leave them alone. Perhaps they believed that any attempt to make things better might, in fact, make them worse.

Walpole. One of the greatest of the Whig statesmen was Sir Robert Walpole. He entered Parliament in 1700, and soon proved to be one of the ablest men in the party. Soon after George I became King Walpole became Paymaster-General, and in 1715 he was First Lord of the Treasury and Chancellor of the Exchequer. Within a year or two there was a split in the Whig party. War seemed likely to begin again in Europe, and Lord Stanhope wanted Great Britain to take part in it. Walpole and his brother-in-law, Lord Townshend, thought that Great Britain should keep out of it; if other countries wanted to fight for the possession of this province or that they could fight without British help. Walpole and Townshend resigned from the Government. George I did not want Walpole to resign. He visited the King and handed over the seals of his office. The King gave them back; Walpole handed them over again. This happened ten times. But Walpole was determined, and when he left the King he left the seals behind him.

In 1720 occurred the South Sea Bubble. The South Sea Company was a company formed to carry on some trade with Spanish colonies. It hoped to increase its trade and expected to make very large profits. It even promised to take over the National Debt from the Government. Many people were eager to buy shares in the Company, and their price went up and up until shares of £100 in the Company were being sold for more than £1,000. Other companies were formed at this time, some of them for the most absurd purposes—to import jackasses from Spain, to extract silver from moonbeams, to extract gold from sea-water, to make quicksilver into a solid metal. Such companies were frauds, and the men who formed them soon went away with the money which foolish people had paid for their shares. The South Sea Company was not a fraud, but the price of its shares began to fall, and soon fell very quickly, so that in a short time shares which had been bought for £1,000 were being sold for £150 or less. Many people were ruined, and were very angry with the directors of the Company. A member of the House of Lords proposed that they should be sewn up in sacks and thrown into the sea. Nothing like this was done, and it should

be remembered that the people who had lost their money had only themselves to blame. They had bought their shares at high prices in order to "get rich quick"—and this was not the way to get rich at all.

Walpole had made money at the time of the South Sea Bubble because he had kept his head when other people had lost theirs—he had bought shares when the price was low and sold them when it was high. He was now asked to clear up the affairs of the Company. He made the directors give up all their own wealth, and was able to divide it among those who had lost money.

In 1721 Walpole again became First Lord of the Treasury and Chancellor of the Exchequer, and he held these posts for more than twenty years. George I could not speak English, and he took very little interest in the government of Great Britain; he left it to Walpole. The King did not attend meetings of his ministers, for he would not be able to understand what they were saying to him. When the ministers held a meeting one of them had to preside in place of the King, who was not there. That one was Walpole, who thus became Prime Minister—the first Prime Minister that this country ever had. Other ministers had to agree with him, and if they did not he expected them to retire.

Walpole wanted to increase the trade of the country. On most things imported into the country a duty had to be paid. This increased the price of the article; if the duty was heavy the price would be very high, and very little would be bought by the people. Walpole saw that if these duties were lowered the goods would be cheaper; people would want to buy more, and more would be imported. He reduced many duties, and on some things he removed the duty altogether. There was a big increase of trade; merchants grew rich, and there was plenty of work for the people.

The country was prosperous, and Walpole was liked by the common people. Members of Parliament liked him also, because he lowered the land tax. This was a tax of four shillings in the pound on income from land. It was started in the reign of

William III in order to pay for the war with France, and it had to be paid by all landowners. Walpole reduced it from four shillings to three shillings; then, a year or two later, to two shillings; and then to one shilling. All members of Parliament were landowners, and even the Tory squires in the House of Commons were pleased with the Prime Minister's action.

As time went on Walpole became less popular. He proposed an Excise Bill; if it had become law the duty on tobacco and wine would have been collected in a different way (though it would have been no heavier than before and might have been lighter), but it would not have been so easy to smuggle these goods into the country. The Bill was not understood by the people, and there was a great outcry against it. People thought that their houses would be searched and that their tobacco would cost them more. It seemed that if the Bill were carried there would be rioting, and even bloodshed. King George II advised Walpole to go on with the Bill, but he withdrew it because, though he was sure it was a good idea, he thought it would not be right to carry it at the price of bloodshed.

In 1736 two smugglers were to be hanged at Edinburgh. The people of the city tried to rescue them, and Captain Porteous, in command of a guard of soldiers, ordered his men to fire on the mob, with the result that some people were killed. The smugglers were hanged, but Porteous was tried in Edinburgh for murder and was sentenced to death. This was unjust, because he had done no more than his duty. The King was in Hanover at the time, and Queen Caroline was acting as Regent for him. She sent a pardon for Porteous in Edinburgh, but the mob broke into the prison, took him out, and hanged him. This was murder, and those who committed it should have been punished. Walpole did not know what to do. The Queen was very angry, and wanted the city of Edinburgh to be punished very heavily. If Walpole refused, the Queen, who had always been his friend, would turn against him; if he did what she wished all the Scottish members in the House of Commons would vote against him. In the end the city was fined £2,000, though the actual murderers were not found and punished.

Walpole tried to keep the country out of war. Wars were going on in Europe while he was Prime Minister, but Great Britain did not take part in them. He once said to the Queen: "Twenty thousand men slain this year in Europe, and not one an Englishman!"

Many other people, in Parliament and in the country, wanted war, and at last Walpole had to give way. When Captain Jenkins came home from the West Indies to tell that his ship had been stopped and searched by the Spanish and his ear cut off by a Spanish officer there was a loud cry for war with Spain. Walpole declared war in 1739. "They are ringing their bells," he said; "they will soon be wringing their hands." He was not a good war minister. He did not carry on the war well, and in 1742 he resigned.

One reason for Walpole's long term of power was that he was supported by the Whig System built up by the Duke of Newcastle. Newcastle was Secretary of State under Walpole, but he was interested only in the System. He did not exactly bribe members of Parliament to give their votes for Walpole. But every Whig member thought that any reasonable request he made ought to be granted. One member might want a title, another might ask for some well-paid appointment, a third might ask that his brother, who was in the Church, should be made a bishop, a fourth might want a friend to be given an appointment in the colonies, and yet another might ask for a post as hall-porter in a Government office for one of his servants. The Duke knew all the members, and, as far as he could, he gave them what they wanted. In this way the Whig party was kept together in its support of Walpole.

Walpole was a country squire, and he never lost his love of country life. He was fond of hunting and shooting, and he enjoyed a tramp across the fields of his estate in Norfolk. He loved a good dinner, and he drank much more than is done by men of to-day, though not more than did other men of his class in his time. Yet he was not a mere country bumpkin. He was a man of education and good taste. He made a large collection of pictures, of which he was a good judge.

Many men of his own time and since have found fault with Walpole because of his policy of peace. They say he did not care enough for the honour of the country. In all lands there have been statesmen who have been ready to plunge their people into war for the "honour" of the country. Walpole was a man of common sense who saw that there was very little to be gained and much to be lost by war. Such statesmen are rare; if there had been more of them, in this country and elsewhere, there would have been fewer wars.

After Walpole's retirement the Government was carried on by other members of the Whig party in much the same way as in his time, except that Great Britain again became mixed up in European wars.

The Calendar. One important reform was made in 1751, when the Calendar Act was passed. The calendar in Great Britain was not quite the same as that in most other countries; it differed from the others by eleven days. It was decided to bring Great Britain into line with other countries by dropping eleven days, and it was enacted that the day after 2nd September, 1752, should be 14th September, 1752. The reason for this change was not made clear to the people, and many of them thought that their lives were being shortened by eleven days. "Give us back our eleven days of life," was the cry of mobs of people in many parts of the country. It was also ordered that in future the English year should begin on 1st January instead of 25th March, as hitherto. The quarter days were left unchanged; they were the saints' days which came at intervals of three months from 25th March (Lady Day, 25th March; St. John Baptist, 24th June; St. Michael, 29th September; Christmas, 25th December). If the year had always begun on 1st January, the quarter days would have been 1st January, 1st April, 1st July, and 1st October.

The Fall of the Whigs. George III became King in 1760. He did not like the Whigs, and as by this time most of the Tories had ceased to be Jacobites there was no reason why they should

not share in the government of the country. Within a year or two George III dismissed his Whig ministers, and the long period of Whig rule came to an end.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Give three reasons why the Whigs remained in power so long.
2. Mention three or four reasons why Sir Robert Walpole should be regarded as a great statesman.
3. What changes were made in the English calendar in 1751?
4. Write four or five lines about each of the following: The Whig System, the South Sea Bubble, Jenkins's Ear, the Porteous Riots.

CHAPTER 23

THE WARS WITH FRANCE

The War Period. From the time of Elizabeth to the Revolution of 1688-9 Spain was regarded as the chief enemy of England. By the latter part of the seventeenth century the power of Spain was gone, and a new power, France, had arisen in Europe. After 1689 the national enemy of England was France.

For a century and a quarter, between 1689 and 1815, there were seven wars between the two countries. They were long wars, in which great battles were fought on land and sea. For nearly half this long period actual fighting was going on, and during the short spells of peace between the wars the two countries were, as a rule, unfriendly. The whole period is sometimes called the second Hundred Years War.

The Seven Wars. The wars fall into three groups. Between 1689 and 1713 were the War of the League of Augsburg and the War of the Spanish Succession, with a break between them of only five years, from 1697 to 1702. In these two wars England was fighting against Louis XIV, who was trying to make himself the most powerful king in Europe.

Between 1743 and 1783 three wars occurred between Great Britain and France—the Austrian Succession War, 1743-8, the Seven Years War, 1756-63, and the War of American Independence, 1778-83. These were wars in which the two countries were fighting for possessions overseas, for trade, and for supremacy at sea.

The French Revolutionary and Napoleonic Wars lasted from 1793 to 1815, with a break of only a year in 1802-3. These were wars against the French Revolution and the power of Napoleon.

The first four of these seven wars occurred in the period covered by this book.

War of the League of Augsburg. The War of the League of Augsburg was fought in William III's reign. Louis XIV, King of

France, wanted to conquer the Dutch and also wanted to put James II back on the throne of England. England, therefore, was bound to fight in order to keep the king she wanted and to keep out the king she did not want. Much of the fighting was in the Spanish Netherlands (Belgium). William was not very successful in winning battles, but though he was sometimes beaten he was never badly beaten, and he was always able to re-form his armies and fight again. Peace was made at Ryswick in 1697. Not only did Louis gain nothing, but he was forced to give back various towns and lands he had conquered in Europe during the previous twenty years. He was forced, also, to acknowledge William as King of Great Britain.

War of the Spanish Succession. When Charles II, King of Spain, died in 1700, Louis hoped to make his grandson, Philip, Duke of Anjou, King of Spain. If he succeeded he would be master of Spain as well as of France, and might then be able to force England to accept James, the Pretender, as King, and at last to conquer the Dutch. (When James II died in 1701 Louis recognised the Pretender as King of Great Britain.) England was bound to fight again, and Holland took up arms once more against the French. Another claimant to the Spanish throne was an Austrian prince, the Archduke Charles, and England, Holland, and Austria fought against France and Spain to put Charles on the Spanish throne.

The Captain-General of the English and Dutch armies was John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough, one of the greatest generals in the history of the world. (Sir Winston Churchill is descended from him.) His defeat of the French in the Battle of Blenheim, in 1704, was the greatest English victory on the Continent since the Battle of Agincourt, three hundred years earlier. It was of this battle that the poem was written in which a peasant, old Kaspar, was talking to his grandchild about a skull which had been turned up by his plough. He described the battle to the child, and

"What good came of it at last?"

Quoth little Peterkin.

"Why, that I cannot tell," said he,

"But 'twas a famous victory."

Marlborough won further victories at Ramillies, Oudenarde, and Malplaquet, and there was a great deal of fighting in Spain and some in Italy.

There were victories at sea as well as on land; a fleet under Sir George Rooke and Sir Cloudesley Shovell captured Gibraltar in 1704, and Lord Stanhope with another fleet took the island of Minorca in 1708.

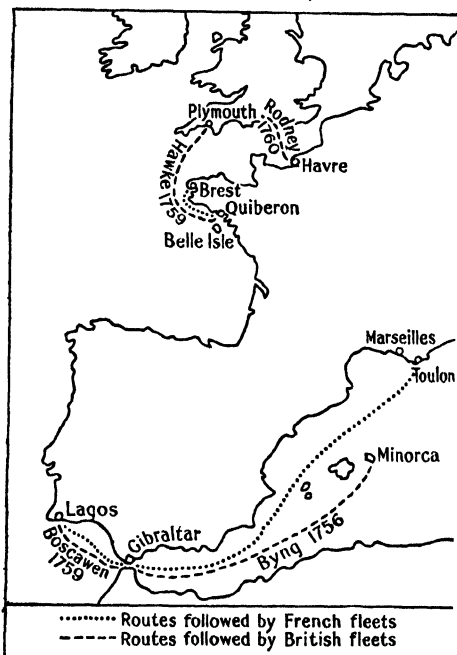
Peace was made by the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713. Louis was beaten, but the terms of the peace were not harsh. France lost no lands in Europe. Philip of Anjou was recognised as King of Spain, and the Archduke Charles (who had become Holy Roman Emperor in 1711) was given other Spanish possessions in Europe. Great Britain kept Gibraltar and Minorca, and the French recognised the British right to Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, and the lands round Hudson Bay. Louis had to recognise Anne as Queen of Great Britain and to promise to expel the Pretender from France.

Peace. There was peace between the two countries for the next thirty years, the longest spell of peace during this period of conflict. This was because, for the greater part of the time, Walpole was Prime Minister of Great Britain and Fleury was the chief minister of France, and both Walpole and Fleury wanted their countries to remain at peace.

War of the Austrian Succession. In 1740 Frederick the Great, King of Prussia, attacked Maria Theresa, the ruler of the Austrian dominions. He thus began the War of the Austrian Succession, which lasted till 1748. Great Britain and France were on opposite sides, Great Britain helping Maria Theresa and France fighting against her. War between them was not actually declared until after the Battle of Dettingen in 1743, in which the British under the command of George II defeated the French. Two years later the French gained a victory at Fontenoy, and, as British troops were brought home to fight against the Young Pretender in the Jacobite rising of 1745, there was no further fighting between British and French on the Continent.

But the real rivalry of Great Britain and France at this time

was not in Europe at all. In India Dupleix was eager to drive the British out of the land, and in 1746 Madras fell into French hands. In North America, British and French were opposed to



NAVAL WARFARE IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

each other, and Louisbourg was captured by British colonists. But by the Treaty of Aachen in 1748 Louisbourg and Madras were exchanged.

Though peace was restored in Europe war was likely to break out again very soon. Maria Theresa had lost the province of Silesia to Frederick the Great; she wanted to get it back, and she prepared for another war. In India and North America the peace was hardly noticed; fighting was carried on whenever French and British forces met, just as though the two countries were still at war.

Seven Years War. The Seven Years War began in 1756, only eight years after the Peace of Aachen. Maria Theresa had made an alliance with France against Frederick the Great, and Great Britain changed sides and supported Frederick. For some years he had a hard struggle, for his enemies included Russia as well as Austria and France. William Pitt became Secretary of State in Great Britain and he helped Frederick by sending him money and troops. If Frederick had been beaten and forced to make

peace the French would have been able to send large forces to India and North America; while their armies were engaged in Europe they could not do this. Pitt, however, sent forces to North America which turned the scale in the struggle there, and the French were beaten. By his help to Frederick he had kept the French occupied in Europe; he had "won Canada on the banks of the Elbe."

Pitt also strengthened the navy, and in 1759 French fleets were destroyed by Boscawen at Lagos, off the coast of Portugal, and by Hawke at Quiberon Bay, in Brittany. French naval power was at an end until new ships could be built and new seamen trained. As a result of these naval victories British arms were successful in every part of the world in which fighting was going on.

Spain joined in the war on the side of France in 1762, and, as a result, Havana in the West Indies and Manila in the Philippine Islands were captured by the British fleets.

By the Treaty of Paris, 1763, Great Britain held large possessions in India; the eastern half of North America was entirely British; and she gained several islands in the West Indies. British trade was bound to increase. Sugar and cotton from the West Indies, spices and many other things from India, tobacco, rice, and sugar from the North American colonies, poured into Great Britain. Much of the slave trade, the carrying of negroes from Africa to America, was in British hands. British fleets were unchallenged everywhere, and the treaty showed that Great Britain had decisively beaten France in the race for colonial empire.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Why did Great Britain fight France in the
 - (a) War of the League of Augsburg?
 - (b) War of the Spanish Succession?
 - (c) War of the Austrian Succession?
 - (d) Seven Years War?
2. What did Great Britain gain in the Peace of Utrecht, 1713?
3. What did Great Britain gain in the Peace of Paris, 1763?

TIME CHART

THE SECOND HUNDRED YEARS WAR

WARS		TREATIES
	1689 —	
LEAGUE OF AUGSBURG	1697 —	— 1697 Ryswick
	— 1700 —	
	1702 —	
SPANISH SUCCESSION	1713 —	— 1713 Utrecht
	1743 —	
AUSTRIAN SUCCESSION	1748 —	— 1748. Aachen
	— 1750 —	
	1756 —	
SEVEN YEARS	1763 —	— 1763 Paris
	1778 —	
AMERICAN INDEPENDENCE	1783 —	— 1783. Versailles
	1793 —	
FRENCH REVOLUTIONARY	— 1800 —	
	1802 —	— 1802 Amiens
	1803 —	
NAPOLEONIC	1815 —	— 1815. Paris

CHAPTER 24

INDIA

Venetians and Portuguese. The English were not the first European people to trade with India. Venetian merchants had grown rich on Indian trade in the Middle Ages, and in 1498 a Portuguese sailor, Vasco da Gama, reached India by sailing round Africa. During the sixteenth century the Portuguese built up a regular trade with the East by way of the Cape of Good Hope, and they settled in several places, the most important of which were Goa and Bombay, on the west coast of India. Towards the end of the century both Dutch and English began to think of trading with India.

Rivalry of Dutch and English. The spices—cloves, pepper, cinnamon, nutmegs—which were wanted in Europe were to be obtained from the islands of the East Indies which lie to the south-east of Asia. The Dutch, who had already made some voyages to the East, formed an East India Company in 1602; they made several settlements on the islands and built up a large trade. The English East India Company, formed in 1600, also traded with the islands, and the Dutch did not wish to share the trade with their rivals. In 1623 they arrested eighteen English merchants at Amboyna, in the Moluccas, and put them to death after very cruel tortures. This might have led to a war between England and Holland, but James I, though he shed tears when he heard of the massacre, did nothing to avenge it. English people did not forget it, however, and, when the Dutch were beaten in war by Blake in the time of the Commonwealth, they had to pay for what they had done thirty years earlier.

Rivalry of Portuguese and English. After the massacre of Amboyna the English East India Company gave up trading with the islands and turned to the mainland of India. India at this

time was the Mogul Empire, and its Emperor was Jehangir. Some voyages to India had already been undertaken. William Hawkins reached Surat in 1608 and went on to Agra, the Emperor's capital, to ask for permission to trade at Surat. Jehangir gave permission, but English traders were opposed in India by the Portuguese as they had been in the islands by the Dutch. In 1612 at Swally Roads, at the mouth of the River Tapti, a sea battle was fought in which Captain Thomas Best defeated the Portuguese, and the victory was repeated by Captain Nicholas Downton at the same place three years later.

Sir Thomas Roe was sent from England as ambassador of James I to the Mogul emperor in 1615. Roe was a very able man, and was firm and dignified. Many people at Jehangir's court expected presents from him, but he refused to bribe them, though he gave a coach, a sword, and a clock to the Emperor himself. Jehangir had never seen a clock before, and was delighted with the gift. He became friendly towards Roe, and he again granted full permission to the merchants of the English East India Company to settle and trade in Surat. No doubt the English victories in Swally Roads had shown him that the English were quite as powerful and important as the Portuguese.

English Factories in India. The first English factory in India was at Surat, and during the seventeenth century several other factories were established—at Madras in 1639, at Hugli in 1650, and at Fort William (Calcutta) in 1696. When Charles II married Catherine of Braganza, a Portuguese princess, Bombay (on an island) was given to him as part of the Queen's dowry. He sent five hundred soldiers to hold it, but in 1668 he gave it to the East India Company for a rent of £10 per annum. Bombay became, in place of Surat, the chief centre for English trade on the west coast of India. Other English factories were at Masulipatam, Fort St. David, and Fort St. George, but by the end of the seventeenth century the most important places were Madras, Bombay, and Calcutta.

The word "factory" is used nowadays for a building in which things are made. The East India Company called its overseas

stations factories because they were places in charge of factors, or agents. A factory was built on the plan of some of the colleges at Oxford and Cambridge. There was a central courtyard, round which the buildings were placed. These were of two storeys. The rooms on the ground floor were store-houses, in which goods were kept to await the arrival of ships to take them to England, and offices in which business was done. The upper rooms were for living and sleeping. The whole factory was surrounded by a strong wall, so that it could be defended in case of attack. A few Indians might be enlisted to serve as soldiers under the command of English officers for the defence of the factory; this was done first in Bombay, and later at the other factories.

The most important people in a factory were the merchants, men who carried on the Company's business of buying and selling. Some of the merchants formed a Council, under a President, who was in charge of the factory. Under the merchants were the writers, or clerks, and the apprentices, who had not been long in India and who were learning the business. Merchants, writers, and apprentices were like the managers, clerks, and junior clerks in a large business house of the present day.

The French. The French did not come to India till late in the seventeenth century. Their East India Company was formed in 1664, and they founded their chief factory, Pondicherry, about eighty miles from Madras, in 1675. Other French factories were at Mahé, on the west coast, and at Chandernagar, near Calcutta.

India was still the Mogul Empire, and neither French nor English thought of trying to rule any part of it. The two companies were not unfriendly; there was plenty of trade for both of them, and even when England and France were at war (as they were for most of the time between 1689 and 1713) there was no fighting east of the Cape of Good Hope. War between England and France might be carried on in home waters, but not in the Indian Ocean.

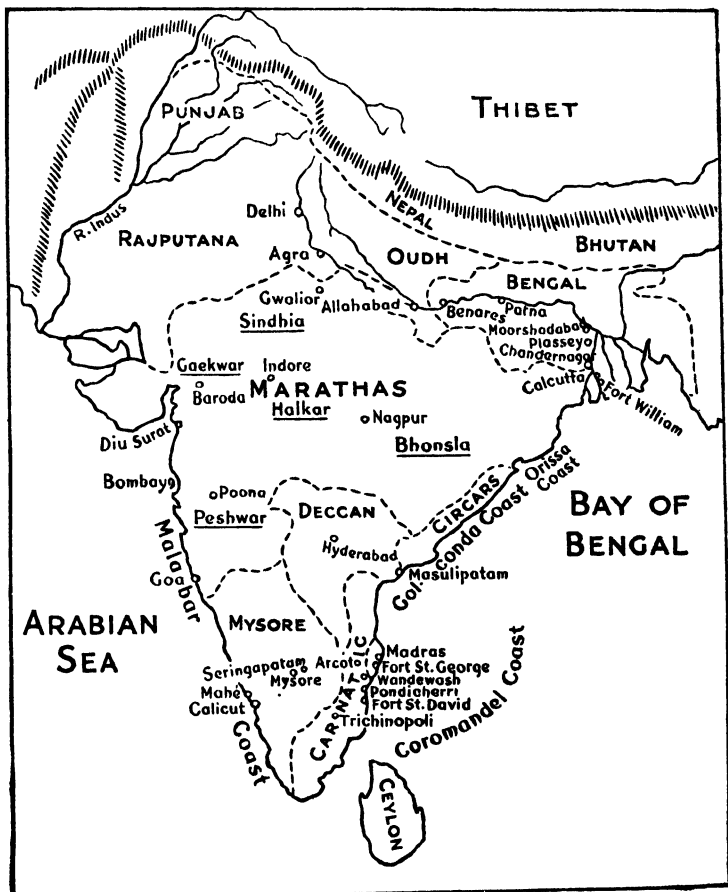
Break-up of the Mogul Empire. In the eighteenth century the Mogul Emperors were not so powerful as formerly, and many of

the nabobs and rajahs who had ruled their provinces as viceroys of the Great Mogul became independent princes. When an Indian prince died there was often a fight between claimants to his throne. These little wars went on all over India, and the country was never entirely peaceful.

Dupleix. Dupleix became Governor of Pondicherri in 1741. It seemed to him that it would be possible to establish a French empire in India. He planned to take part in the wars that were going on. If two Indian princes were fighting for the throne to an Indian state and Dupleix helped one of them to obtain it, the new nabob would be friendly with the French. In that way French influence would be established in one state after another until it extended all over India. To do this Dupleix needed forces, and as France was fighting in the Austrian Succession War in Europe he could not expect large armies to be sent from home. He raised sepoy troops, natives who were drilled and trained by French officers.

While the British and French were in India for trade and nothing else there was no reason why they should fight one another, as there was enough trade for both. But if either nation began to establish an empire in India it would look upon the other as an enemy. When Dupleix made his plans for increasing French power in India he saw that it would be necessary to fight the British and capture their factories. From this time war between British and French was carried on in India as well as in Europe, and even when the two countries were at peace in Europe there might be fighting in the East.

Madras. The first victory was to the French. In 1746 a French fleet under La Bourdonnais sailed to Madras, which was besieged by sea and land. As the British garrison was small and the attack was unexpected the factory was captured in a week. La Bourdonnais wanted to let the British ransom their factory for £200,000, but Dupleix was jealous of the French admiral's success and would not agree. La Bourdonnais sailed away, and for the next two years Madras was held by the French. When the two



INDIA

countries made peace in 1748 it was given back to the British, without ransom, in exchange for Louisburg in North America, which had been captured by the British.

Hyderabad. The Nizam of Hyderabad, a large state in central

India, died in 1749. There was some fighting between the claimants to his throne, but Dupleix supported one of them and made him Nizam. A French sepoy force was sent to the city of Hyderabad and remained there for several years. The Nizam was thus an ally of the French.

The Carnatic. Both Madras and Pondicherri were on the coast of the Carnatic, a long narrow state in south-east India. The Nabob of the Carnatic died in 1749, and, as in Hyderabad, two princes claimed the throne. Dupleix helped Chunda Sahib against his rival, Mohammed Ali, who was besieged in Trichinopoly. If Mohammed Ali could be captured, Chunda Sahib would become Nabob of the Carnatic, and French power would be fully established in the state. Madras would probably be taken again, and as at this time Madras was the most important British factory in India it was likely that the other factories would be taken in the next few years and the British would be turned out of India altogether.

This did not happen. Robert Clive was a young officer who had been sent out in 1744 as an apprentice in the Company's service. He did not like his work, and more than once he tried to commit suicide, but his pistol failed to fire when he pulled the trigger. He gave up his work as a clerk and became an officer in the small sepoy force at Madras. When he heard that Mohammed Ali was being besieged at Trichinopoly Clive wanted to help him by making an attack on Arcot, the capital of the Carnatic. The Governor of Madras, Major Saunders, agreed, and Clive set out with two hundred white soldiers and three hundred sepoys and three guns. He reached Arcot and attacked it during a thunderstorm, quickly capturing it. The news of the loss of his capital reached Chunda Sahib at the siege of Trichinopoly. He sent a large part of his army to recover Arcot, but Clive held on during a siege of fifty days. His men had so little food that the sepoys offered their share of the rice to the white soldiers, being satisfied themselves with the water in which the rice had been boiled. The besiegers were at length driven off, and Arcot remained in Clive's hands. The siege of Trichin-

opoli was also abandoned. Chunda Sahib died shortly afterwards, and Mohammed Ali became Nabob of the Carnatic, in which British, and not French, influence existed henceforth. Dupleix went home to France in disgrace. Clive returned to England to be greeted as a "heaven-born general."

The capture and defence of Arcot by Clive was the turning-point in the struggle of British and French for power in India. Until this time the Indian people had thought that the French were much better fighters than the British. They now found that they had been mistaken, and the fame of the British spread to every part of India.

Bengal. The Nabob of Bengal at this time was a young man named Siraj-ud-Daula (or Surajah Dowlah). In 1756 he attacked and captured Calcutta, and 146 British people were shut up in a small guard room—the Black Hole—for a whole night. The room had only one small window, the night was very hot, the air in the room became very foul, and the prisoners had not even standing room. In the morning it was found that 123 of the prisoners had died from overcrowding and suffocation.

Clive, who had just returned to India, was sent to Bengal. The Nabob agreed to pay some money to the Company because of what had happened, though this could not bring his victims back to life. Clive believed that he was getting ready to make another attack upon the British and that he was receiving French help. Clive therefore plotted to dethrone him, and set up one of his generals, Mir Jaffir, as Nabob. At the Battle of Plassey, in 1757, Clive had only 1,000 white and 2,000 sepoy soldiers, with ten guns, to oppose an army of more than 50,000 men with 53 guns, which were served by French gunners. The fight did not last long. Siraj-ud-Daula became panic-stricken, and fled, and so did his army. In Clive's small force one white man and twenty-two sepoys were killed, and about fifty men were wounded. Siraj-ud-Daula was murdered a week later by his own people. Mir Jaffir became Nabob of Bengal, where British influence henceforth was very great, while Clive became famous in every part of India.

The Carnatic. The struggle between British and French was not yet ended. In 1758 Count Lally became Governor of Pondicherry. He was a brave but not a wise man; he offended and insulted French officers, and he despised the native troops. This was not the way to get the best out of his men. (If Clive, at Arcot, had behaved in such a way towards the men under him they would not have held out for fifty days!) Soon after he landed Lally captured Fort St. David. But this was his only success. He was so foolish as to withdraw the French garrison from Hyderabad, and the Nizam, thinking that the British were now stronger than the French, made an alliance with them against his former friends.

Lally tried to capture Madras, but Clive sent troops from Bengal to help in its defence, and the French had to give up the attack. In 1760 Colonel Coote defeated Lally in the Battle of Wandewash, the only battle in this struggle in which British and French fought against one another with little or no help from natives. Lally retired into Pondicherry, to which Coote laid siege. There was no hope of the place being relieved, for the British had command of the sea, and there were no French forces left by land, while the Indians were not likely to help a losing side. Coote did not waste the lives of his men by attacking; he waited until the French, Lally among them, were forced by starvation to surrender.

The British triumph. This was the end of the struggle between French and British for India. When peace was made between Great Britain and France the French were given back their factories at Pondicherry, Mahé, and Chandernagar, but they were to be used only as trading stations, and were not to have garrisons of soldiers. The British were not yet masters of India, but they were masters of Bengal, they were friendly with the Nizam of Hyderabad and the Nabob of the Carnatic, and their fame was high throughout the land.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. What was done by each of the following to increase British trade or strengthen British power in India: Nicholas Downton, Sir Thomas Roe, Charles II, Colonel Coote?
2. Describe an English factory in India.
3. What was Dupleix's aim in India, and how did he try to bring it about?
4. Write an account of the work of Clive in (*a*) the Carnatic, and (*b*) Bengal.
5. Make lists of (*a*) British, and (*b*) French, factories in India.

CHAPTER 25

NORTH AMERICA

The North American Colonies. The attempts of Gilbert and Raleigh to found colonies in North America were not successful, and at the death of Elizabeth England had not a single possession overseas. During the next hundred and thirty years thirteen English colonies were founded on the east coast of North America. The colonies of the south were sometimes called plantation colonies; their climate was warm, and much of the work in them was done by negro slaves. The New England colonies formed the northern group; their people were Puritan, and as the climate of New England was no hotter than that of England the work was done by white men and there was no need of negro slaves. Between these two groups lay the middle colonies—New York, New Jersey, and Delaware—which were taken from the Dutch. These were like the northern colonies in climate, but their people were not Puritan; many of them were not even English, but were Swedish or Danish or Dutch.

Founding a Colony. It was not very easy to found a colony. Much money was needed, for the earliest settlers had to be supplied with food, clothing, arms, tools, and seeds until they had built houses and roads and had grown food enough to keep themselves. Even a very rich man could hardly be expected to provide all that was wanted, though this might be done by a company. The men chosen as settlers should be honest and ready to work hard. They should not quarrel with the Indians, nor should they waste their time looking for gold, but they should get things in order as quickly as possible.

Virginia. In 1606 a company was formed to found a colony in Virginia, and in the next year it sent out ships carrying one

hundred settlers, under the command of Christopher Newport. Virginia was reached, and a settlement which was named Jamestown, in honour of the King, was begun. The colony did not



By permission of Basil Blackwell

CAPTAIN JOHN SMITH SAVED BY POCAHONTAS

prosper at first, and for a time it seemed likely to perish as Raleigh's attempts had done. The settlers looked for gold, and did not find it; many of them died of fever; some of them traded, and then quarrelled, with the Indians; then they quarrelled among themselves. Newport, who had gone back to England,

returned to Virginia and made Captain John Smith Governor of the colony. Smith was a remarkable man. He had fought in many wars in Europe; he had been a slave in Turkey, and had escaped; he had been captured by brigands; he had been thrown into the sea and left to drown, yet had survived. Now, in America, he visited a tribe of Indians and might have suffered death at their hands had not the chief's daughter, Pocahontas, come forward and saved his life.

In 1609 Sir George Somers went out to Virginia with more ships. His own vessel became separated from the others in a storm and was wrecked on the island of Bermuda, but the others reached Jamestown. There was not enough food in the colony for the newcomers as well as the settlers who were already there. To make matters worse, Smith was hurt in an explosion of gunpowder, and had to return to England.

Meanwhile, in Bermuda, Somers and his men built a small ship from the timbers of their wrecked vessel, and in 1610 they reached Jamestown. The colony was now in such a bad way that the settlers decided to abandon it. Their few ships weighed anchor and sailed down the James River to begin their voyage across the Atlantic. But at the mouth of the river they met a small fleet with provisions and new settlers, under the command of Lord Delaware. They turned back, to begin the settlement again.

This time they had to work. Lord Delaware ruled them till he became ill and went home. Sir Thomas Dale, the next Governor, was stern and even brutal; he ordered that men who would not do their share of work should be flogged. This was harsh treatment, but it was necessary, and the colony began to prosper. Before many years Virginia was growing large quantities of tobacco to be sent to England. Yet it seems likely that if King James had had his way no tobacco would have been grown there (for he did not like the new habit of smoking), but men would still have prospected for gold. And in that case Virginia would have been a failure!

The Pilgrim Fathers. The other colony founded in the reign of



James I was Plymouth, a Puritan settlement nearly four hundred miles north of Virginia. At the Hampton Court Conference James I had said of the Puritans: "I will make them conform or I will harry them out of the land." The King spoke hastily and in anger; in fact, his acts were not nearly so bad as his words. He could not make them conform, and he did not harry them out of the land. There was no persecution of the Puritans in his reign; certainly there was nothing in England like the Inquisition in Spain. But some of the Puritans left England of their own free will because they did not like the Church of England and could not get it changed. They went at first to Leyden in Holland and lived there for some years, but they did not care to remain there always lest their children should grow up as Dutchmen rather than as Englishmen. Some of them hired two ships, the *Mayflower* and the *Speedwell*, and decided to go to North America. The *Speedwell* was leaky and had to be abandoned, but the *Mayflower* took a few other Puritans from England on board, and after making a final call at Plymouth crossed the Atlantic. The voyage was stormy, and the passengers—about a hundred of them, men, women, and children—reached the North American coast and landed. In their new home, which they called Plymouth (they had sailed from Plymouth to Plymouth), they suffered great hardships, but they were not afraid of hardships. They worked hard; they cut down trees; they built log huts, and, in course of time, better houses; they cleared the ground and tilled it. They appointed one of their number to be their governor, and much of their success was due to their wisdom in choosing William Bradford, who was governor of Plymouth for many years. The settlers at Plymouth who crossed the Atlantic in the *Mayflower* are commonly known as the Pilgrim Fathers, although most of them were young, only two of them being over fifty years old.

Massachusetts. A few years later a similar settlement, Massachusetts, was made by another body of Puritans from England. Its first governor was John Winthrop, who ruled it for a long time; he was a wealthy man who was able to help many poorer

people to go out to the colony. Massachusetts thus became more important than Plymouth, and had more people in it. Before the end of the seventeenth century Plymouth ceased to be a separate colony, and became part of Massachusetts.

Both Plymouth and Massachusetts were strictly Puritan colonies. Only Puritans were allowed to live in them, and everybody was compelled to attend church. Any person who did not agree with Puritan views was expelled from the colony and sent back to England—if he was lucky. The Puritans were very cruel towards Quakers who came to Massachusetts. Some Quakers were flogged; some were hanged. It is often thought that the Puritans settled in North America to establish religious freedom, and Mrs. Hemans wrote:

Ay, call it holy ground,
The soil where first they trod!
They have left unstained what there they found—
Freedom to worship God!

Nothing could be further from the truth. The freedom they established was freedom for themselves alone.

Other New England Colonies. Some of the Puritans themselves hated this persecution. A new settlement, which became the colony of Rhode Island, was made in 1636 by men from Massachusetts who wanted to establish real religious freedom. They were led by Roger Williams, a young Puritan minister, and by a woman, Anne Hutchinson, who had dared "to argue religion with King Winthrop himself." From the first, Rhode Island was a colony in which men of any religion could settle. Other New England colonies were Connecticut and New Hampshire.

Maryland. Rhode Island was not the first English colony in which religious toleration prevailed. In 1632 Maryland (named after Henrietta Maria, the Queen of Charles I), was established by Lord Baltimore. Baltimore was a Roman Catholic, and he wanted to make a settlement in which Roman Catholics could

live and worship freely. It was out of the question to establish a colony for Roman Catholics alone; neither the King nor the people of England would have permitted it. Maryland became a colony in which all forms of the Christian religion—Anglican, Puritan, and Roman Catholic—were allowed.

The Middle Colonies. Between the New England colonies and Maryland lay a group known as the middle colonies; these included New York, New Jersey, and Delaware. This region had belonged to the Dutch, and it separated the English colonies of the south from those of New England. It was conquered from the Dutch in the war of 1665-7 and was given by Charles II to his brother, the Duke of York (afterwards James II), who had fought, and fought well, in the war. The Dutch colony of New Amsterdam was divided by the Duke into two parts; one was named New York and the other New Jersey.

The Carolinas. The Carolinas, North and South, were settled in the reign of Charles II, who gave a large stretch of land in North America to a group of nobles of his court. The name "Carolina" was not, as might be supposed, given to the settlement in honour of Charles II. There had been a small French settlement there a hundred years earlier, when the King of France was Charles IX, and it was after him that the region was named. The settlers were Huguenots, and they were visited by a Spanish captain who hanged them, leaving an inscription over their bodies: "Not as Frenchmen, but as heretics." A French admiral who reached Carolina soon afterwards caught the Spaniards who had done this, and he hanged them with the inscription: "Not as Spaniards, but as murderers."

The English settlement of North Carolina did not prosper for many years. Many of its inhabitants were escaped criminals, and a good deal of piracy was carried on from its coast. South Carolina was more important. The settlers owned large estates on which tobacco, sugar, and rice were grown. Negro slaves were made to work on those estates, and criminals were transported from England to work by their side.

Pennsylvania. Pennsylvania, a Quaker colony founded by William Penn in 1681, was farther in the interior than the other colonies. It was the only one of the thirteen colonies that had no coast line, but its trade could pass down the Delaware river to the sea. The colony was begun for the benefit of Quakers, but men of all forms of the Christian religion were allowed to settle there. Penn ordered that the Indians should be treated fairly; he felt sure that if the settlers behaved fairly towards them the Indians would give no trouble.

Georgia. The colonies mentioned so far were founded or conquered in a period of three-quarters of a century, between 1607 and 1681. Georgia was established fifty years later, in 1732, by General Oglethorpe, who named it after George II. At that time people who were in debt and could not pay the money they owed might be cast into prison until the debt was paid; this meant that many debtors were put into prison for the rest of their lives. Oglethorpe thought that these poor people ought to be given a chance of making a living in the New World. He started the colony and was allowed to take some of the people in the debtors' prisons as his first settlers. He wanted Georgia to be a model colony, in which there would be no slavery, and he wanted the Indians to be treated fairly, as in Pennsylvania. In course of time slaves were bought by the settlers, and the colony became similar to South Carolina.

Nova Scotia. The thirteen colonies were not the only British possessions in North America. Nova Scotia was not regarded as an English colony at all. The name means "New Scotland," and the colony was first settled by Scots in the reign of James I. The French also claimed it, and in the reign of Charles I there was fighting between French and Scottish settlers. The Nova Scotians even captured the French fort of Quebec in 1629, but when peace was made Charles I not only restored Quebec to the French but yielded Nova Scotia to them as well. Nova Scotia was lost for the next eighty years, but by the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713 it was given to Great Britain.

Newfoundland. Newfoundland had been discovered by John Cabot. Sir Humphrey Gilbert had tried without success to establish a colony there. Some other attempts were made in the Stuart period, but for a long time the island was abandoned. By the Treaty of Utrecht it was recognised as a British possession. In view of its discovery by Cabot and of Gilbert's attempts at settlement Newfoundland is sometimes called England's oldest colony.

Hudson Bay Territory. The Hudson's Bay Company was founded in 1670 to trade in furs with the Indians of the northern part of North America. Some settlements like the factories of the East India Company were made. There was trouble with the French, but by the Treaty of Utrecht the land around Hudson Bay was declared to be British territory. This region was called Ruperts-land, as Prince Rupert was one of the founders of the Hudson's Bay Company.

The West Indies. Many of the islands of the West Indies were acquired by the English in the seventeenth century. Some of them have changed hands from time to time, but Barbados, the first West Indian island to become an English possession, has never been taken by an enemy. It was annexed in 1625 by a sea captain who landed and nailed on a tree a board with the notice: "James, King of England and of this island." During the seventeenth century other islands were captured or settled—and sometimes were lost, for the French and the Dutch as well as the Spanish had possessions in the West Indies, and islands were captured and recaptured when wars took place. The most important island obtained by the English was Jamaica, captured from the Spanish by Admiral Penn in 1655; like Barbados, it has never been lost to an enemy.

French settlements in North America. It must not be thought that Great Britain was without a rival in North America. A Frenchman, Samuel Champlain, founded Quebec in 1608, one year after the English colony was begun in Virginia, so that the

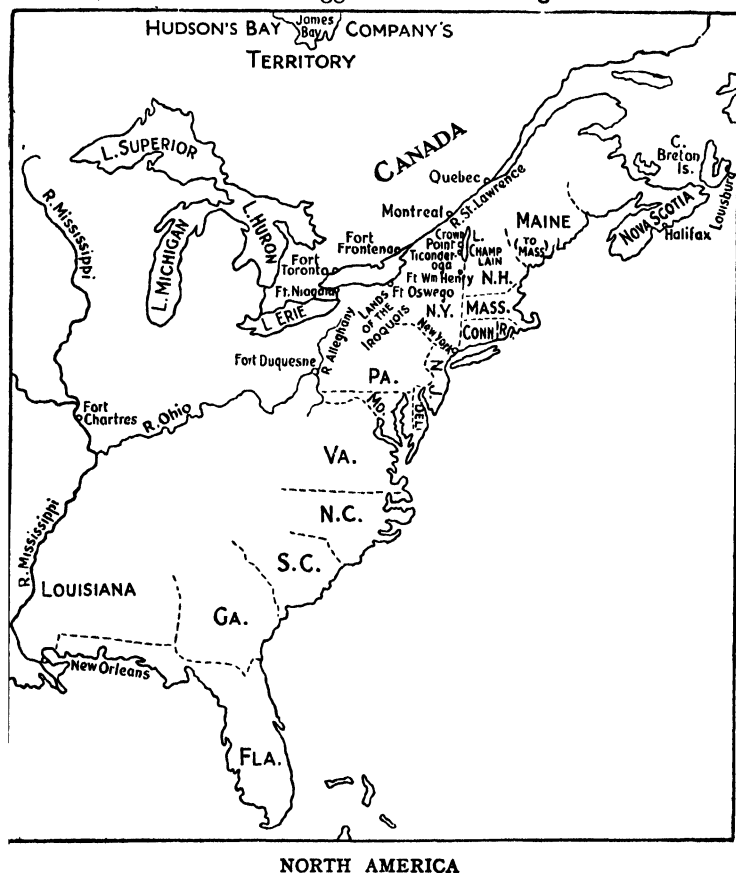
two nations began their settlements in North America at about the same time. French Jesuits carried on missionary work among the Indians; one of them, La Salle, explored the Great Lakes, and another, Marquette, traced the course of the greater part of the Mississippi River. His work was completed by La Salle, who reached the mouth of the river and proved that it flowed into the Gulf of Mexico and not into the Pacific, as many people had thought.

Louis XIV, King of France, granted the whole of North America from Hudson Bay to the Gulf of Mexico to a new French company, the Company of the West. In doing this he took no notice of the existing English colonies. He had no right to grant to his company lands which belonged to another nation, and in the Treaty of Utrecht, just before his death, he was forced to admit the right of the British to their possessions in North America.

French settlements were made at many places on the St. Lawrence, the Ohio, and the Mississippi. The map shows that these rivers were in a roughly straight line almost parallel to the coast. The French, therefore, had a line of forts behind the English colonies and stretching from Louisburg, on Cape Breton Island, to New Orleans, at the mouth of the Mississippi. If the French could build more forts and make them strong enough they would prevent the British from getting farther into the interior of the continent. They might even try to drive the British into the sea.

Struggle between British and French. There was no definite boundary line between British and French settlements, and border fighting often took place. The French forts had garrisons of soldiers, while there were few regular soldiers in the British colonies. Many of the Indian tribes were friendly with the French and fought on their side, though the Iroquois, a powerful group of tribes, fought for the British. But the French never had much chance of success. In all their posts they had only about 60,000 or 70,000 people, while the British in the eighteenth century numbered more than a million. Such a small number of French could hardly hope to drive out such a large number of

British. Further, the British navy was more powerful than the French, and when the struggle reached its height Great Britain



could send out soldiers and arms and supplies, and could prevent such help from reaching the French.

The real struggle occurred in the middle of the eighteenth century. In 1745 the colonists of Massachusetts, aided by a

British fleet in the St. Lawrence, attacked Louisburg, which was thought to be very strongly held, and, to the surprise of the French, captured it. It was even possible that if the colonists had gone on to Quebec this city might have been taken then instead of a few years later. But the chance was not taken, and when peace was made in 1748 Louisburg was given back to the French in exchange for Madras, which, as mentioned elsewhere, had fallen to the French in 1746.

In 1752 the French built a strong fort, Fort Duquesne, on the river Ohio, as a threat to Virginia. They might attack Virginia, and force their way through to the sea, thus cutting the British colonies into two parts. The Virginians, under a young planter, George Washington, attacked the fort without success, and Washington and his men were captured, though the French were unable to hold them, and they were released. In 1755 a few regiments of regular soldiers under General Braddock attacked Fort Duquesne. Braddock was a brave soldier, but he did not understand colonial ways of fighting, where men hid themselves in bushes and thickets and fired from behind trees and rocks. His men advanced in line as on a European battlefield, and large numbers were killed, including Braddock himself.

In 1757 the French gained further victories, but William Pitt, who became war minister in Great Britain at this time, prepared for the conquest of the French in North America. He sent over troops and supplies, and he appointed the best generals he could find to command the British forces. Several French forts were taken in 1758, including Louisburg and Fort Duquesne, which was renamed Pittsburg.

In 1759 Pitt planned an attack on Quebec. A force under General James Wolfe was taken up the St. Lawrence by a fleet under Admiral Saunders. The City of Quebec stood on high ground—the Heights of Abraham—and the cliffs on one side were so steep that it was thought to be impossible for the British to scale them. Wolfe ordered his artillery to keep up a heavy fire on the other side of the city while his foot soldiers were taken by night in small boats to the foot of the cliffs. They found a narrow path and climbed to the top, overpowering the sentry

there, who was not expecting them. In the morning the British army was drawn up on the Heights of Abraham, ready to give battle. The French, under their leader, Montcalm, attacked, but were beaten. Both Wolfe and Montcalm were slain. Quebec thus fell into the hands of the British.

It was not quite certain that they could hold it. French forces were gathered to besiege Quebec, which was held during the winter of 1759-60 by General Murray. Provisions in the city ran short, and no help could arrive till the spring, because the St. Lawrence was frozen during the winter. Neither side knew whether it would be a French or a British fleet that would sail up the river when the ice broke, for neither side knew that the French fleets had been destroyed in the Battles of Lagos and Quiberon Bay in the autumn of 1759. It was a British fleet that appeared, and Quebec was saved.

In the summer of 1760 Lord Amherst captured Montreal, and all other French forts soon surrendered, so that the conquest of Canada was complete. Peace after the Seven Years War was not made till 1763, when the French yielded all their possessions east of the Mississippi (except New Orleans) and in Canada to Great Britain. Florida was taken from the Spanish at the same time, so that Great Britain now held the whole of the eastern half of North America.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Why did the settlement of Virginia in the reign of James I nearly fail?
2. Why did the settlement at Plymouth succeed?
3. Write four or five lines about each of the following: John Winthrop, Roger Williams, General Oglethorpe, William Penn.
4. In which of the colonies in North America were negro slaves employed? What was their work?
5. Describe the capture of Quebec.
6. Write what you know about the North American Indians.

CHAPTER 26

SOME FAMOUS MEN OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough. Churchill, one of the most brilliant generals this country has ever had was already a well-known soldier in the time of James II. He sided with William III against James II, and he took part in the fighting in Ireland in 1690-1. But he was not faithful to William; he kept in touch with the exiled James II, and his wife was very friendly with the Princess Anne. William made Churchill Earl of Marlborough and sent him to fight in the War of the League of Augsburg, but when the King found that he was not to be trusted and that he often wrote to James he said: "Were my Lord Marlborough and I private gentlemen we would settle our differences with the sword." In other words, if William had not been King he would have challenged Marlborough to a duel.

Marlborough's real chance of fame came when Anne became Queen. He became Captain-General of English and Dutch forces in the War of the Spanish Succession. Louis XIV had already fought several wars, and until this time his armies had been undefeated, but Marlborough overcame them in the great Battles of Blenheim, Ramillies, Oudenarde, and Malplaquet. After the Battle of Blenheim Marlborough was made a duke and was given Blenheim Palace.

The war dragged on, and men became weary of it. It was said that though Marlborough won battles he did not want the war to end. Every year he was growing richer through the war. His soldiers were devoted to him, and his enemies whispered that he was planning to overthrow the Queen and make himself ruler of England as Cromwell had done. "A second Cromwell," the word went round.

In 1711 the Duke was dismissed from his command. He was no longer popular, and charges were brought against him. They could not be proved, because in the main they were not true. But he had been greedy and selfish, and he never rose to power again.

Henry St. John, Viscount Bolingbroke. St. John was born in 1678, and was two years younger than his great rival, Walpole. The two boys were at Eton at the same time, and they entered Parliament at the same time in 1700, Walpole as a Whig and St. John as a Tory.

For some years St. John was Secretary-at-War. This was a very important post in the reign of Queen Anne, since England was at war with France, and the Secretary-at-War had to arrange for recruiting the army and supplying it with everything that was needed. He was an able man and did his work well. In 1708 he resigned, and for the next two years the Secretary-at-War, in a Whig ministry, was Walpole.

The Whigs resigned in 1710, and for the rest of Anne's reign the Tories were in power. St. John became Secretary of State, and in 1712 he was made Viscount Bolingbroke. Robert Harley, who became Earl of Oxford, held the office of Lord High Treasurer. The Tories desired two things—to make peace with France, and to make the Pretender King after Queen Anne.

In 1713 Bolingbroke brought about the Peace of Utrecht with France. It was not so easy to arrange for James to succeed Queen Anne, because he was a Roman Catholic and would not change his religion; Harley would do nothing to put a Roman Catholic on the throne; Bolingbroke cared nothing for religion, but he knew that many of the Tories and all of the Whigs were against a Roman Catholic king. The two men quarrelled in the Queen's presence. She was very ill, and the excitement of the quarrel made her so much worse that she died five days later. Bolingbroke was not ready to proclaim James, and George I became King.

George distrusted the Tories, and would have only Whig ministers, and Bolingbroke was dismissed from the office of Secretary of State. Soon afterwards he fled to the Continent; an Act of Attainder was passed declaring him to be guilty of high treason, condemning him to death, and depriving him of his lands and title.

In France Bolingbroke joined James, who made him his Secretary of State and conferred on him the title of Earl of

Bolingbroke. He organised the rebellion of 1715, but so much of the plans of the revolt came to be known by the British Government that he was suspected of betraying his new friends, and James dismissed him. For four or five years Bolingbroke was in the unusual position of being regarded as a traitor by both sides. He thought that the Stuart cause was hopeless, and, growing tired of his exile, he sent a petition for pardon to George I. The pardon was granted in 1722; his title and estates were restored to him, but he was not allowed to take his place in the House of Lords. On his journey back to England he is said to have met Francis Atterbury, Bishop of Rochester, who was going into exile because he had plotted to dethrone George I. "My Lord, we are exchanged," said the Bishop.

It was understood, of course, that Bolingbroke would henceforth be loyal to the House of Hanover and would abandon the Pretender. But he did not become a Whig. Many of the old Tories were Jacobites, and Bolingbroke devoted the rest of his life in England to the building up of a New Tory party which, like the Whigs, would support the House of Hanover. He wrote a book, *On the Idea of a Patriot King*, in which he stated that the King ought not to be connected with one party but should be above party. He did not expect George II to be such a Patriot King, for George would have none but Whig ministers, but he hoped that when Frederick, Prince of Wales, with whom he was friendly, became King he would be the Patriot King. Walpole would then be dismissed from office, and Bolingbroke, restored to his place in the House of Lords, would become Prime Minister.

Meanwhile, though he could not attack Walpole in Parliament, he did so in the pages of a newspaper, *The Craftsman*. Walpole cared very little for the opinions of Bolingbroke and his friends, and on one occasion, in the House of Commons, he described Bolingbroke as

making it his trade to betray the secrets of every court where he had been before; void of all faith and honour, and betraying every master he ever served.

It cannot be said that this was undeserved.

The New Tory party grew in numbers, but Bolingbroke did

not become Prime Minister in place of Walpole. Walpole died in 1745; the Prince of Wales died in 1751; and Bolingbroke himself died in the same year. George II outlived them all, not dying till 1760.

It is interesting to notice that Bolingbroke's idea of a Patriot King has been realised. The King or Queen to-day is not connected with any political party; but is above party.

William Pitt, Earl of Chatham. Pitt was not a member of any of the great noble families. He was the son of a doctor, and his grandfather, Thomas Pitt, had been in the service of the East India Company. Thomas Pitt was known as Diamond Pitt, because he had made a fortune by the purchase of diamonds in India and their sale in Europe. One very large diamond was bought by him for £20,000 and sold to the Regent of France for £135,000; it was afterwards valued at £500,000.

William Pitt was educated at Eton and Oxford and became an officer in the army. But he was less interested in the army than in Parliament, of which he became a member in 1735. He was a Whig, but not a follower of Walpole. From the first, and throughout his career, Pitt was honest; he would not accept bribes himself, and he would not bribe others to support him. Walpole remained in power as Prime Minister because he was supported by the System managed by the Duke of Newcastle. No doubt this was one reason why Pitt made speeches against Walpole in the House of Commons. He became the leader of a small group of Whigs opposed to Walpole. They called themselves "Patriots," but Walpole mockingly called them the "Boys." "We must muzzle this cornet of horse," said Walpole. But he found that Pitt could not be muzzled.

George II did not like Pitt, who sometimes spoke against the use of British troops and money for the defence of Hanover, which he called "a despicable little Electorate." In spite of this, when Henry Pelham was Prime Minister he made Pitt Paymaster-General, and he held this office for eight years. In the eighteenth century, anybody who became Paymaster-General was thought to be very lucky, for he could easily enrich himself;

it was usual for the Paymaster-General to take for himself a small amount from the pay of every soldier in the army, and there were many other ways in which he could gain wealth for himself. In the eight years of his work as Paymaster-General Pitt refused to receive a single penny of such money.

He did not like Newcastle and his ways. Yet in 1757 he accepted the office of Secretary of State under Newcastle as Prime Minister. This was because Great Britain was now in the Seven Years War, and the war had opened badly. In the Mediterranean Minorca had been lost, and a British army had been defeated in Hanover, which the French were occupying. Though he detested Newcastle's System Pitt thought it to be his duty to join with him to save the country. "I know that I can save the country and that nobody else can," he said. If anybody else had made that claim people would have laughed. But they did not laugh at Pitt; they felt that his remark was true. For four years Pitt directed the war while Newcastle managed the System. It was said that "Mr. Pitt did everything, while the Duke gave everything."

Pitt proved to be one of the greatest war ministers this country has ever had. He changed his mind about Hanover, to the delight of the King, and he arranged that Frederick the Great should defend it from the French in return for the British troops and money which were sent to the Prussian king. By doing this Pitt was keeping the French busy in Europe, while Great Britain was winning victories in India and North America. New ships were built for the navy, and older ships were refitted, so that British fleets were strengthened. The coasts of France were blockaded so completely that French overseas trade was cut off, and when French fleets came out they were overtaken and destroyed by their watchful enemies. In choosing admirals and generals to command fleets and armies Pitt refused to appoint nobles of high rank, as had often been done in the past. He selected the best men he could find, without regard to rank and title, and if anybody thought he could obtain a high post in the war by the influence of powerful friends he found he was mistaken.

George II died in 1760. The new King, George III, did not

like Pitt, and was not always willing to follow his advice. Pitt wanted to declare war on Spain, because he had learned that Spain was getting ready to make war on Great Britain. The King would not agree, and Pitt resigned. George soon found that Pitt was right, and war broke out with Spain. But Pitt had done his work; the Seven Years War was won, and by the Treaty of Paris great additions were made to the British Empire.

Some years later Pitt was made Earl of Chatham. When the quarrel with the American colonies began he was against the taxation of the colonies, and said that he was glad they were resisting it. He did not want Great Britain to lose the colonies, and when France joined in the War of American Independence he pressed for the fight against France to be carried on to a finish. He was too old and too ill to direct this war, even if the King had been willing to appoint him to his old post. At the end of a speech in the House of Lords he fell back in a fit and had to be carried out. With his death a few weeks later Great Britain lost the greatest statesman of the eighteenth century.

John Wesley. Wesley was one of the most remarkable men in the whole history of England. He was born in 1703, at Epworth in Lincolnshire, where his father was rector. John was one of a large family, his parents had not much money, and as a child he became used to plain meals and patched clothes. His mother trained him and her other children well, and John became eager to study. He went to Christ Church College, Oxford, and when he was old enough he became a clergyman and assisted his father as his curate.

He soon returned to Oxford as a tutor. His brother Charles was now a student at Christ Church. Both brothers were shocked at what was going on in the University. Few of the students cared for learning, and not many of the tutors and professors cared for teaching. Most of the young men there passed their time in hunting and games, in gambling and drinking, and in even worse ways. The Wesleys, with a few friends, among whom was George Whitefield, formed a small society of men who tried to live a better life than those around them.

They were sober, honest, and hard-working; they went to church regularly; they received the communion every Sunday; they met in one another's rooms for prayer and Bible-reading. They ordered their lives by rule, or method. Others at the University jeered at them and nicknamed them Methodists, a name which they adopted and which remains to this day.

In 1735 John Wesley went as a missionary to Georgia, which had only recently been founded. He was not used to colonial ways, and his work in Georgia was a failure. He returned to England in 1738, and soon afterwards he felt that he would like to devote his life to preaching the Gospel to the people of England.

For more than fifty years he travelled about England, and he sometimes visited Scotland and Ireland. He travelled on horseback, and he preached three or four times, and even more, every day. He visited every town and almost every village in the country during his life. "The world is my parish," he said, and if he did not preach to the whole world he certainly did to the whole country. As a clergyman of the Church of England he wanted to preach in churches, but most of the clergy would not let him use their churches. Therefore he preached in the open air, and people gathered to listen to him, sometimes only a few, but often many hundreds or many thousands. Wesley had a remarkable voice and could make himself heard by those at the back of a large crowd as easily as by those in front. The people must have been very quiet; if there is only a slight movement in a crowd no speaker can be heard. Wesley was so great a preacher that those who came to hear him were "dead quiet."

Wesley did not intend to form a new religious body. He was a priest of the Church of England, and he wanted his followers, who were called Methodists after the original band at Oxford, to remain within the Church. This proved to be impossible, and after his death in 1791 they formed a separate church, or, rather, they broke up into several churches. (In more recent times these Methodist bodies have reunited into one Methodist Church.)

John Wesley's work had a lasting effect on the people of England. In the early part of the eighteenth century there was much wickedness and very little true religion. Wesley succeeded

in reviving English religion. Hundreds of thousands of people became more devout and tried to live better lives as the result of hearing him. His work was more important for England than all the victories won in the wars of the century. He was one of the greatest saints in the history of the Christian religion, and one of the greatest men of all time.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Why is Marlborough regarded as a great general? In what ways is he to be blamed?
2. What were Bolingbroke's aims:
 - (a) In Queen Anne's reign?
 - (b) When he was in exile?
 - (c) After his return to England?
3. Give reasons for regarding Pitt as a great man.
4. Describe the work of John Wesley.

CHAPTER 27

ENGLISH TRADE

Foreign Merchants. In the Middle Ages English trade had been carried on mainly by foreign merchants; until the fifteenth century the number of English merchant ships was not large. Every year a fleet of Venetian galleys laden with the spices and silks of the East sailed from Venice through the Strait of Gibraltar and up the English Channel to Flanders. On their way the Venetian ships called at English south-coast ports, and much buying and selling went on.

The Hanseatic League consisted of a number of German towns, and the merchants of the League settled in London, Hull, and other English ports. In London they lived in the Steelyard, which was on the north bank of the river Thames, where Cannon Street Station now stands. These Hanse merchants carried on much of the trade between England and the countries of Northern Europe.

English Trading Companies. Foreign merchants were not always to have things their own way. In the fifteenth century, and still more in the sixteenth, a large number of English merchants wanted to trade overseas, and many ships were built. But it was thought that these merchants ought not to trade by themselves. Merchants who wanted to trade overseas were expected to join one of the great trading companies that were formed at this time, just as those who carried on trade in English towns had to belong to the merchant gild of the town.

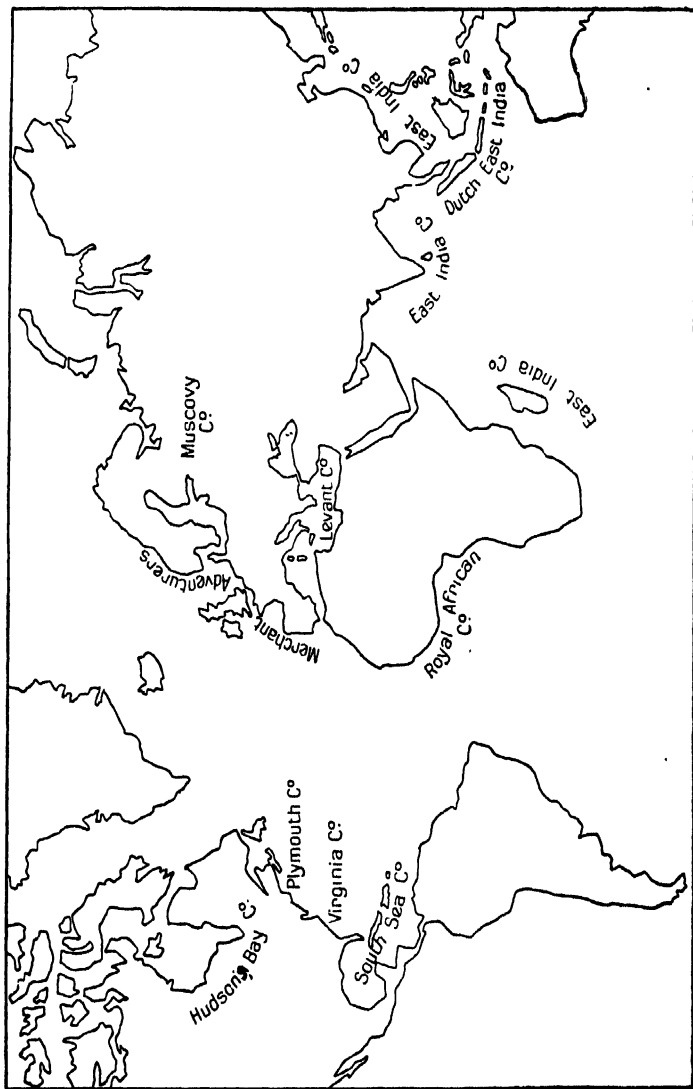
There were many reasons why it was thought better for trade to be carried on by companies than by single merchants. Trade was sometimes with distant lands, and permission to trade had to be obtained from the rulers of those countries; a ruler would be more likely to give permission to a large company than to one merchant. The company was more likely than the solitary

merchant to deal fairly with the people with whom it did business. A trader by himself might be tempted to cheat and rob, if he could, and he might even do a little piracy, so that he could make a fortune on a single voyage; then he need never go back again. But a company would not do these things, as it would want to keep on trading. There was a further advantage in company trading. There were many pirates at sea, and every merchant ship carried guns to be used against them. A single ship might easily be taken by them, but a company could send out a whole fleet, which no pirate would dare to attack.

Merchant Adventurers. The Merchant Adventurers were a body of merchants who traded with all the countries of northern Europe. Just as the Hanse merchants had settled in England, so the Merchant Adventurers had several depots on the Continent, especially at Antwerp and Hamburg. They were keen rivals of the Hanse merchants, and the trade between England and North Germany passed into their hands. During the Tudor period the Hanse merchants lost many of their privileges in England, and in 1597 they had to leave the country and the Steelyard was closed. The Merchant Adventurers continued to prosper.

Muscovy Company. The voyage of Willoughby and Chancellor to try to find a North-East passage to the East has been described in another chapter. Chancellor landed at Archangel, on the White Sea, and went overland to Moscow, where he was received by the Tsar. It was agreed that trade should be carried on between England and Russia, and the Muscovy Company was formed. It traded with Russia for many years, though at one period it met with bad luck, for its warehouses at Archangel were burnt.

Levant Company. A Levant Company, or Turkey Company, was formed during the reign of Queen Elizabeth to trade with the countries of the eastern Mediterranean. Most of these lands were under Turkish rule, and it may seem strange that the Sultan should be willing to let his people trade with the English. But



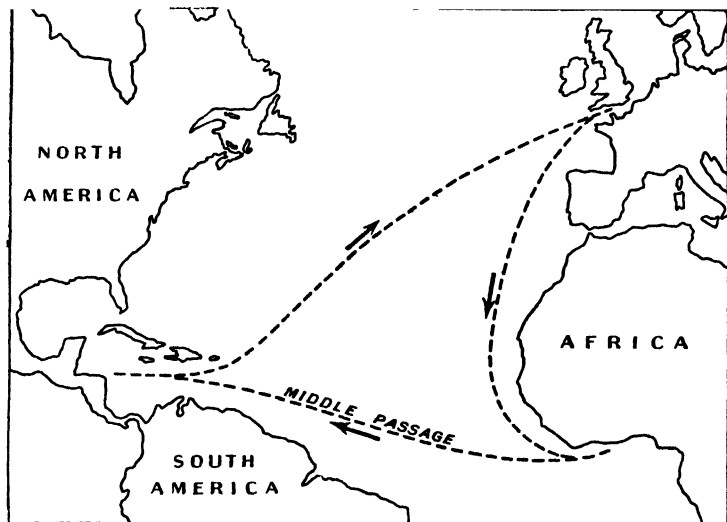
THE TRADING COMPANIES

the Turks looked upon the Spanish as their chief enemies—there was a great battle in the Mediterranean, at Lepanto, between Turkish and Spanish fleets, in 1571—and when the Sultan learned that English and Spanish were unfriendly he was ready to let English merchants of the Levant Company trade with his empire. The voyage through the Mediterranean was full of danger, for the north coast of Africa sheltered a large number of Mohammedan pirates, the Corsairs, who preyed upon Christian ships. The Levant Company never sent single ships through the Mediterranean; once a year a large fleet sailed from England to the Turkish ports.

East India Company. The most famous of the great trading companies was the East India Company, which was founded towards the end of Elizabeth's reign. At this time pepper and other spices were brought to England by Dutch merchants, who in 1599 raised the price of pepper from three shillings to six shillings per pound. In September, 1599, "a meeting of London merchants was held in my lord mayor's parlour to consider the unchristian price of pepper." The merchants no doubt thought six shillings was an unchristian price for a pound of pepper while they had to pay it; whether it would have been unchristian if they had been able to sell pepper at that price is not so certain! They decided that an English company ought to fetch pepper and other spices from the Indies, and the East India Company was formed. It received a charter from the Queen on 31st December, 1600, the last day of the sixteenth century. The Company sent out four ships which returned with a million pounds of pepper. It took eight years to sell this vast quantity, but a big profit was made. For nearly a century and a half the East India Company was merely a trading company, but from the middle of the eighteenth century it became the ruler of large parts of India. It lasted till after the Indian Mutiny, and came to an end in 1858. Its story has been told in another chapter.

Slave trade. Not all overseas trade was carried on by companies. Elsewhere in this book the tale is told of how Sir John Hawkins

tried to supply Spanish colonies with negro slaves. Though Hawkins failed, other men occasionally ran cargoes of negroes across the Atlantic and managed to sell them. When England had set up colonies in North America and the West Indies slaves



THE SLAVE TRADE

were needed in them, and in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries the slave trade became very important. Several companies were formed for this trade, the most important being the Royal African Company in 1672, but much of the slave trade was carried on by men who were not members of any of these companies, and many merchants of London, Bristol, and Liverpool became rich through it.

The Hudson's Bay Company. In the seventeenth century English and French explorers began to trade for furs with the Indians in the land round Hudson Bay. Prince Rupert, the cousin of Charles II, was interested in the trade, and he sent two small vessels to Hudson Bay. One of them was driven back by a

storm, but the other reached the Bay, and Fort Nelson was built. In 1670 the Hudson's Bay Company was formed, and regular trade began. During the next forty years there was some fighting between English and French, and more than once Fort Nelson was taken by the French and recovered by the English. By the Treaty of Utrecht, 1713, the French admitted that the land round Hudson Bay belonged to the English.

The Company's agents treated the Indians fairly, and, as a rule, the Indians were friendly with them. The Company never had any large force of soldiers to guard its factories. In course of time the Indians trusted the English so much that when a quarrel or dispute arose among themselves they would bring it to an English agent and ask him to settle it.

Colonial trade. In the seventeenth century colonies were founded in North America and the West Indies. They were not always founded for trade, but trade naturally sprang up between these settlements and England. They sent to England such things as tobacco, sugar, rice, and cotton, which could not be produced in England, and they received from England goods which were made in England and which they could not yet make for themselves.

This trade was not free. Colonial merchants were not allowed to sell all their goods wherever they liked. Certain things had to be sent to England and nowhere else; other things—those which were not wanted very much in England—might be sold to foreign traders. But all colonial trade had to be carried in English or colonial ships, and not at all in foreign ships. Colonial merchants did not like these rules; they wanted to sell their goods wherever they could get the highest prices, and they thought that their cargoes could sometimes be carried more cheaply in foreign vessels. But colonial shipowners and shipbuilders were satisfied, for the rules allowed colonial ships to be used as well as British ships.

Interlopers. As stated above, not all overseas trade was carried on by companies. No doubt that was what the Govern-

ment wanted, but there were always traders who preferred to sail on their own account and to go to any part of the world where they could make a profit by trading. They were out for adventure as well as for profit, and they would sometimes go to lands which were within the monopoly of a chartered company. A company always objected to these interlopers, and tried to stop them, but could not always do so. Some of these private traders were ready to turn pirate if they had the chance of doing so.

Piracy. In every part of the world merchant ships ran the risk of being attacked by pirates. The ships carried guns with which to defend themselves, and those of large companies sailed together in fleets.

The Rovers in the English Channel have been mentioned in an earlier chapter. They attacked Spanish ships because Spain was the enemy of England, but a century later, when all danger from Spain was past, there were still pirates in the Channel and round the coasts of Great Britain, and it was for the building of ships to deal with them that Charles I levied ship-money.

In the Mediterranean the Corsairs were Mohammedan pirates who attacked the ships of all Christian nations. Mediterranean ships were, for the most part, galleys rowed by slaves, and when the Corsairs took a prize they made galley-slaves of all the men on board—captain, crew, and passengers. Galley-slaves were naked and were chained to their seats, from which they were never released; they were fed and slept there. They were whipped to make them pull hard at the oars, though, when the galley was attacking a Christian ship, there was nothing they wanted more than a Christian victory, so that they might be set free.

The Buccaneers were pirates in the West Indies in the latter part of the seventeenth century. Many of them were English or French. At first they singled out Spanish ships for attack, but before long they were ready to capture anything that came in their way. They were bloodthirsty villains, who not only plundered ships, but killed the crews, either in the fight or by making them walk the plank afterwards. Under Henry Morgan

they made an attack on a Spanish town, Panama, which they left in flames after sacking it and killing many people. Some years later Morgan came to England and was knighted by Charles II, who made him Governor of Jamaica. Buccaneers and other pirates remained numerous in the West Indies until well into the eighteenth century.

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. Why was trading by companies to be preferred to private trading?
2. Write three or four lines about each of the following: the Steelyard, the Muscovy Company, pepper, interlopers.
3. What were the rules made by England about colonial trade?

CHAPTER 28

ENGLISH LIFE IN AND AFTER THE STUART PERIOD

Life in the Country. People often say that times are changing. "We live in a changing world," they say; "things are different from what they were fifty years ago"—or twenty years ago, or even ten years ago. This is always true. The world does not stand still. Change does take place, sometimes quickly, sometimes so slowly that it can hardly be noticed. And country life changes more slowly than that of towns.

In the Tudor and Stuart periods most of the people of England still lived in the country, and gained their living by working on the land. They were no longer serfs as in the Middle Ages, but their villages had not changed very much since the Middle Ages. A village contained a church, a blacksmith's forge, a wheelwright's shop, and an inn, besides the cottages in which the people lived. In some places there were farms not unlike those of the present day, but in many other villages the arable land still consisted of three very large fields. Wheat or rye was grown on one field, and barley or beans on another; the third field lay fallow. Each field had its turn of fallow for one year in three. A field was divided into strips, and every villager had a few strips in each field. Everybody was expected to plough at the same time, to sow at the same time, and to reap at the same time. There had been hardly any change in farming for hundreds of years.

In these villages there was always a large stretch of pasture land on which the people might turn their cattle, sheep, and goats out to graze. The meadow was another stretch of grassland, but the animals were kept away from it so that the grass might grow long; it was cut and dried and used to feed the cattle in the winter. Timber for houses, carts, and furniture was cut from the trees in the woodland, and the smaller branches were cut up for fuel. Nuts and acorns from the woodland were fed to the pigs.

The people of the village did not spend all their time in working on the land. At certain times—of ploughing, sowing, reaping—they were very busy; at other times less so. Also, it was sometimes impossible to till the soil because of frost or snow, and in



Edward H. Gooch

HAWKING

mid-winter the hours of daylight were few. When they could not work out of doors the people did spinning and weaving indoors. Wool was spun into yarn on the spinning wheel by the women, and the yarn was woven into cloth on a hand-loom by the men.

In their spare time the people of the village played games on the common. Football was played, though without the rules of the modern game. Men also played bowls, and wrestling was common. Young men were expected to practise shooting with the bow, and, later, with muskets and other fire-arms. Some of the amusements of the people were cruel—but people at that time were cruel. Bull-baiting and bear-baiting were contests in which dogs were set on to worry bulls and bears; in cock-

fighting two trained cocks were set to tear at each other with their claws. Not all amusements were cruel, however; there was plenty of open-air dancing in the summer.

The upper classes in the country amused themselves by



Edward H. Gough

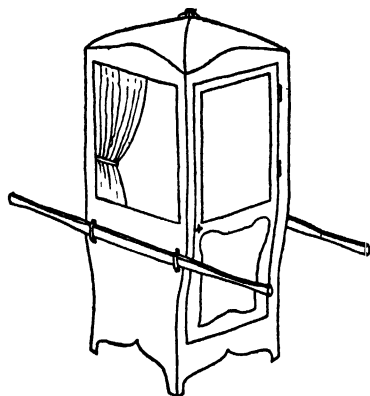
A FALCONER

hunting wild animals. Foxes and hares were hunted with dogs, and wolves were found as late as the reign of Charles II. The most common animal of the chase was the wild deer, as it had been since the time of the Norman kings. Another sport was hawking. A falcon was tamed, and, with a hood over its eyes, carried on the wrist. When a heron or a wild duck was seen the hood was removed from the falcon, which was loosed. It flew above its prey and swooped down upon it, bringing it to the ground. But the heron could defend itself; it had a long sharp beak with which it was sometimes able to "spear" the falcon.

In one way the countryside of this time was different from

that of the Middle Ages. There were no monasteries. In former times the poorest people had been able to obtain food and ale at the gate of a nearby abbey or priory. Now the only place to which the very poor could go was a workhouse—a place in which life was hard and very few people cared to live.

Life in London. London was then, as now, the largest city in the country. But it was not nearly so big then as now. Many districts which are now parts of London were then separate



A SEDAN CHAIR

villages, and there were green fields and country lanes between these villages and the city. Such places as Kensington, Paddington, and Stepney were quite separate from London. Even Westminster was no part of London; the Strand, which was between London and Westminster, was in Tudor times a country road. In the city itself houses were tall and crowded together, and streets were narrow, and even when the greater part of London was burnt down in

the Great Fire of 1666 it was rebuilt on no better plan. The streets were dirty and were crowded with people. Ladies and gentlemen were carried in sedan chairs; the common people had to make their way on foot, and they were bespattered with the mud thrown up by the wheels of passing carts and coaches.

The coffee-houses of London were places in which men met to talk with one another. Over their coffee they discussed all sorts of things—their business, the latest bit of town gossip, news from a war that was going on, or a bill which was being proposed in Parliament.

The streets were not lit at night, and few people cared to be



INTERIOR OF A COFFEE-HOUSE

From *Everyday Things in England*, by Marjorie and C. H. B. Quennell

out late. If a man had to pass through the streets after dark he would have servants with him to guard him; some of them, called link-men, would carry torches. Bands of young men, known as Mohocks, attacked passers-by in the streets at night, beating and wounding them and sometimes stripping their clothing from them. The only police were the watchmen; these were not young and strong men like the police of the present day, but were often elderly and even infirm. They were quite unfit to catch criminals and to keep order in the streets. It was the duty of the watchmen to go through the streets at night and ring a bell, calling out the time and the state of the weather—"past two o'clock and a fine night"; "past three o'clock and raining fast"; "near one o'clock and bitter cold."

Habits of the People. Some of the habits of the people have been referred to already. People were not so clean as they are now. They did not take baths very often; Queen Elizabeth is said to have had three baths during the seventy years of her life. There was much disease, and no doubt this was due in part to lack of cleanliness.

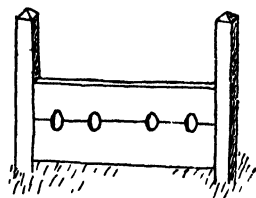
Smoking became common in the Stuart period, though James I did not like it. Tea was first brought to England by the East India Company shortly before 1660. Samuel Pepys wrote in 1660: "I did send for a cup of tee (a China drink) of which I never had drunk." At first some people did not know how to use it; it is said that they poured away the liquid and spread the tea-leaves to be eaten on slices of bread!

Drunkenness was not very common in Stuart times, but became more so in the eighteenth century. Gin had been brought to this country from Holland, and gin-shops were opened in London. Such shops displayed a notice: "Drunk for a penny; dead drunk for twopence; clean straw for nothing."

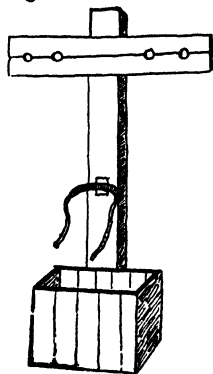
Drunkenness became common among rich men in the eighteenth century. After the ladies had left the dinner table the men remained to drink port. Some of them, who drank three bottles of the wine, were "three-bottle men"; others were only "two-bottle men." They sometimes became dead drunk and

slipped to the floor under the table, lying "down among the dead men" (the empty bottles).

Crime and Punishment. Most of the people were honest and hard-working, but in both town and country there were some who committed crimes. The most common crime was stealing, which took many forms. In the crowded streets of London or any other large town a clever thief would steal silk handkerchiefs and other things from the pockets of his victims. A thief would steal from a shop when the shopkeeper's back was turned. Other thieves broke into houses by day or night and stole whatever they could



STOCKS



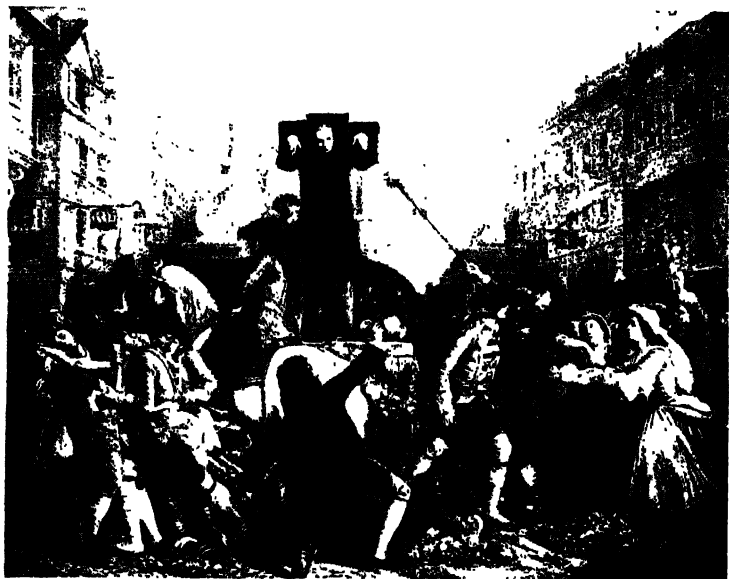
A WHIPPING-POST

find. The highroads were unsafe for travellers because of highwaymen and footpads. A highwayman was mounted on a good horse and carried pistols. He would stop even a stage coach and order the passengers to give up their money. Footpads were ready to attack and rob any solitary traveller.

Thieves and other criminals were punished—when they were caught. But it was not always easy to catch them. The people of a town or village were expected to run after a thief (and in some places they kept bloodhounds to help in the chase), but if he got away into the next parish they did not follow him, but were glad to be rid of him.

For serious crimes, such as highway robbery, men might be hanged, and in London it was common for a number of people to be hanged at one time, at Newgate or at Tyburn. Large crowds would gather to see the sight and to jeer at the wretched men who were to die. People were not often put in prison for other crimes; they were whipped or were placed in the stocks or the

pillory. A man in the pillory stood with his head and arms fixed, and people might throw mud and stones at him; he was quite unable to move out of the way, and his face might be severely hurt. But the friends of a man in the pillory might



Edward H. Gooch

THE PILLORY

gather near it in order to defend him; with their cudgels they would beat any one who dared to cast a stone at him. Women and children, as well as men were whipped, while the bystanders looked on with delight. Every town and village had its stocks and whipping-post; some of these can still be seen.

Protestant heretics were burned at the stake in the reign of Queen Mary, and a few Anabaptists were burned in the time of Queen Elizabeth, but there were no burnings for religion after the close of the Tudor period. But men still believed in witchcraft. Witches were old women (and sometimes men) who were

thought to have sold their souls to the devil. An old woman who was thought to be a witch was blamed for everything that went wrong in the village. If a horse went lame or milk turned sour or a child fell ill or a dog went mad and attacked somebody it was thought to be the fault of the witch. People were afraid of witches, lest they should do them harm, but sometimes a mob would seize a witch, who might be drowned or even burned to death. Witch-burnings were more common in Scotland than in England. The last witch to be burned suffered at Dornoch, in 1722.

Cruelty. From what has been written it will be seen that English (and Scottish) people of past times could be very cruel. At the present time most people hate cruelty, and nothing makes them more angry than to be told of the ill-treatment of a child or an animal. In this respect the England of to-day is certainly better than the "good old times."

QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

1. How did village people earn their living in the seventeenth century?
2. How was land cultivated in the seventeenth century?
3. Write three or four lines about each of the following: sedan chairs, linkmen, footpads, Mohocks.
4. What were the sports and games of (a) the common people, and (b) rich people, in the seventeenth century?

FAMOUS MEN AND WOMEN

Amadas, Philip. Sea captain sent, with Barlow, by Raleigh, to find a part of the North American coast suitable for a colony, 1584.

Amherst, Lord. Captured Montreal from the French, 1760. Governor of Canada till 1763.

Anne. Daughter of James II. Queen of Great Britain, 1702-14. The War of the Spanish Succession and the Union of England and Scotland took place in her reign.

Anne Boleyn. Second wife of Henry VIII. Mother of Queen Elizabeth. Beheaded, 1536.

Anne Hyde. Daughter of Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon. Married to James, Duke of York (afterwards James II). Mother of Queens Mary II and Anne.

Anne of Cleves. Fourth wife of Henry VIII. Divorced, 1540.

Argyll, Archibald Campbell, Duke of. (1) Leader of Scottish Covenanters in the time of Charles I. Had Montrose put to death. Beheaded for treason, 1661. (Really Earl of Argyll. He was promised the title of Duke, and is often called Duke of Argyll.)

(2) Whig noble who defeated Earl of Mar at the Battle of Sheriffmuir, 1715.

Arthur, Prince of Wales. Elder son of Henry VII. Married Catherine of Aragon, 1501. Died, 1502.

Bacon, Francis. Viscount St. Albans. Learned man. Lord Chancellor. Impeached for taking presents as a judge, 1621.

Baffin, William. English seaman who tried to discover North-West passage. Sailed through Davis Strait and reached Baffin Bay, 1616. No explorer went farther north till the middle of the nineteenth century.

Balboa. Spanish explorer. Crossed Isthmus of Darien and discovered Pacific Ocean, 1513.

Baltimore, George Calvert, Earl of. Founder of Maryland, 1632.

Barlow, Arthur. Sea captain sent, with Amadas, by Raleigh to find a part of the North American coast suitable for a colony, 1584.

Baxter, Richard. Puritan clergyman of holy life. Charles II wanted to make him a bishop, but he refused. Fined and imprisoned, unjustly, for libel, by Chief Justice Jeffreys.

Beaton, David. Archbishop of St. Andrews. Cardinal. Persecuted Protestants. Murdered, 1547.

Best, Thomas. Sea captain. Defeated Portuguese at Battle of Swally Roads, 1612.

Blake, Robert. Colonel in New Model Army. Admiral in the time of the Commonwealth. Defeated Rupert and destroyed his fleet. Defeated Tromp in Dutch War. Defeated Spanish at Santa Cruz.

Bolingbroke, Henry St. John, Viscount. Tory statesman of the eighteenth century. Secretary of State under Anne. Tried, and failed, to put the Pretender on throne at death of Anne. Fled abroad. Condemned as a traitor. Joined the Pretender and planned the 1715 revolt. Dismissed by the Pretender. Pardonned by George I, 1722. Returned to England and built up New Tory party. Wrote *On the Idea of a Patriot King*.

Boscawen, Edward. British admiral. Present at capture of Porto Bello, 1739. Received surrender of Madras from the French, 1749. Defeated French fleet at Battle of Lagos, 1759. Died, 1761.

Bothwell, James Hepburn, Earl of. Third husband of Mary Stuart, Queen of Scots. Believed to have murdered Darnley. Fled after capture of the Queen at Carberry Hill. Pirate in the North Sea. Died in prison in Denmark.

Braddock, Edward. British general. Killed in an attack on Fort Duquesne, 1755.

Bradford, William. One of the Pilgrim Fathers. Governor of Plymouth, in New England.

Buckingham, George Villiers, Duke of. Favourite of James I and Charles I. Lord High Admiral. Impeached, 1626. Led expedition to Rochelle, 1627; failed. Murdered, 1628.

Bunyan, John. Tinker. Imprisoned for twelve years for preaching. Wrote *Pilgrim's Progress*.

Byng, John. British admiral. Failed to defend Minorca from French attack, and withdrew to Gibraltar. Tried by court-martial. Shot.

Cabot, John. Two voyages from Bristol across the Atlantic. Discovered Newfoundland, 1497. Reached mainland of North America before Columbus, 1498.

Cabral. Portuguese sailor who reached India with a large fleet of ships. Discovered Brazil, 1501.

Calvin, John. Protestant reformer at Geneva. Founded a church in which services were simple and plain. Calvinism spread into many other countries.

Campeggio. Italian cardinal. Bishop of Salisbury. With Wolsey, he tried Henry VIII's divorce case at Blackfriars, 1529.

Caroline of Anspach. Queen of George II. Friendly with Walpole.

Catesby, Robert. The leader of the Gunpowder plotters. Killed at Holbeach House.

Catherine of Aragon. Spanish princess. Daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella. Married to Arthur, Prince of Wales. After Arthur's death Catherine was married to Henry VIII. Divorce after many years.

Catherine of Braganza. Portuguese princess. Queen of Charles II.

Cecil, William, Lord Burleigh. Minister of Elizabeth for forty years, 1558-98.

Champlain, Samuel. French explorer who founded Quebec, 1608.

- Chancellor, Richard.** With Willoughby, tried to discover North-East passage. Reached Archangel and travelled overland to Moscow. Received by Tsar, who allowed trade between England and Russia. Formed Muscovy Company.
- Charles I.** Son of James I. King of Great Britain, 1625-49. Believed in the Divine Right of Kings. Ruled without Parliament, 1629-40. Tried to alter Scottish Church. Scottish Rebellion. Long Parliament. Great Rebellion. King captured. Second Civil War. King beheaded.
- Charles II.** Son of Charles I. King of Great Britain (nominally), 1649-85; (actually) 1660-85. Ablest of Stuart kings. Received money from Louis XIV. Roman Catholic just before his death.
- Charles V.** Holy Roman Emperor, 1519-56. King of Spain, 1516-56. Wars with Francis I. Could not put down the Lutherans because he was engaged in the French wars.
- Charles VI.** As Archduke Charles, claimed Spanish throne in the War of the Spanish Succession. Holy Roman Emperor, 1711-40. Left his possessions to his daughter, Maria Theresa.
- Charles Edward.** Young Pretender. Son of James, Old Pretender. Led the 1745 revolt. After his father's death he took the title of Charles III.
- Chunda Sahib.** Claimed throne of the Carnatic. Supported by Dupleix, but defeated by Clive, 1751.
- Clarendon, Edward Hyde, Earl of.** Lord Chancellor to Charles II. Unpopular. Fled to France, 1667. Wrote *History of the Great Rebellion*.
- Claverhouse, Graham of.** Viscount Dundee. Supported James II in Scotland at the time of the Revolution. Killed in Battle of Killiecrankie, 1689.
- Clive, Robert, Lord.** Officer in service of East India Company. Captured Arcot, 1751, and held it against siege. Defeated Siraj-ud-Daula at Battle of Plassey, 1757. Governor of Bengal, 1765-7.
- Colet, John.** Studied Greek at Oxford. One of the Oxford Reformers. Became Dean of St. Paul's. Founded St. Paul's School.
- Columbus, Christopher.** Genoese in service of Isabella of Castille. Crossed Atlantic four times, trying to find western route to Asia. Discovered many West Indian islands, and also mainland of Central America.
- Coote, Sir Eyre.** Colonel in service of East India Company. Defeated Lally in Battle of Wandewash, 1760. Captured Pondicherry.
- Cope, Sir John.** British general. Defeated by Charles Edward in Battle of Prestonpans, 1745.
- Coverdale, Miles.** Bishop of Exeter. Translated Old Testament into English.
- Cranmer, Thomas, Archbishop of Canterbury.** Gave divorce of Henry VIII from Catherine of Aragon. In Edward VI's reign he drew up the Book of Common Prayer. Burnt at Oxford by order of Mary, 1556.

Cromwell, Oliver. Leader of Ironsides and New Model Army (under Fairfax) in the Great Rebellion. Crushed royalists in Ireland and Scotland after death of Charles I. Became General of the army after retirement of Fairfax. Expelled the Rump, 1653. Lord Protector, 1653-8.

Cromwell, Richard. Son of Oliver Cromwell. Lord Protector, 1658-9. Resigned.

Cromwell, Thomas. Secretary to Wolsey. Entered service of Henry VIII. Became King's Vicar-General. Dissolved the monasteries. Arranged marriage between Henry VIII and Anne of Cleves. Beheaded, 1540.

Cumberland, William, Duke of. Son of George II. Defeated by the French at the Battle of Fontenoy, 1745. Defeated Charles Edward at the Battle of Culloden, 1746, and crushed the revolt. Brutal treatment of Highlanders. Known as the "Butcher."

Dale, Sir Thomas. Governor of Virginia. Stern and successful.

Dalrymple, Sir John. Minister of William III. Arranged the Massacre of Glencoe, 1693.

Darnley, Henry Stuart, Lord. Second husband of Mary Stuart, Queen of Scots, and father of James VI. He and his friends murdered Rizzio, 1566. Darnley murdered by Bothwell, 1567.

Davis, John. Three voyages, 1585-6-7, in trying to discover North-West passage. Reached farther north than Frobisher.

Delaware, Lord. Governor of Virginia, 1609-11.

Derwentwater, Earl of. One of the leaders of the 1715 revolt. Beheaded.

Desmond, Fitzgerald, Earl of. Revolted, 1579. Revolt crushed by Lord Grey, Raleigh, and Sidney. Desmond slain. Lands ravaged.

Diaz, Bartholomew. First Portuguese seaman to reach and go round the Cape of Good Hope, 1486.

Downton, Nicholas. Sea captain who defeated Portuguese in the second Battle of Swally Roads, 1615.

Drake, Sir Francis. English seaman of Elizabeth's reign. With Hawkins on his third slave voyage, 1567. Many voyages to West Indies and Spanish Main; attacked Spanish ships and towns. Round the world, 1577-80. Attacked shipping at Cadiz, 1587. Vice-Admiral of English fleet against Armada, 1588. Died in West Indies, 1595.

Dupleix, Joseph François. Governor of Pondicherry, 1741-54. Tried, and failed, to found a French empire in India.

Edward VI. Son of Henry VIII. King of England, 1547-53. Country ruled by Somerset at first; then by Northumberland. Changes in religion towards Protestantism.

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- Elizabeth.** Daughter of Henry VIII. Queen of England, 1558-1603. Settled English religion. Rival, Mary Stuart, imprisoned, and afterwards beheaded. England opposed by Spain. English seamen active. Armada.
- Elizabeth of York.** Daughter of Edward IV. Queen of Henry VII.
- Elizabeth Stuart.** Daughter of James I. Married to Elector Palatine. Mother of Prince Rupert and of Sophia of Hanover.
- Erasmus.** Dutch scholar. Student of Greek, especially of the Greek New Testament. One of the Oxford Reformers.
- Essex, Robert Devereux, Earl of.** Favourite of Queen Elizabeth. Failed to crush O'Neill's revolt in Ireland. Recalled in disgrace. Tried, and failed, to raise revolt against Elizabeth. Beheaded.
- Fairfax, Sir Thomas.** General of New Model Army. Refused to take part in trial of Charles I. Refused to fight against Scots, and resigned his command, 1650.
- Fawkes, Guy.** One of the Gunpowder plotters. He was tortured and put to death.
- Ferdinand.** King of Aragon, 1479-1516. Married Isabella of Castile. Father of Catherine of Aragon.
- Fisher, John.** Bishop of Rochester. Cardinal. Opposed divorce of Catherine of Aragon from Henry VIII. Would not acknowledge Henry as Head of the Church. Beheaded, 1533.
- Forster, Thomas.** Squire of Northumberland, and member of Parliament. One of leaders of 1715 revolt. Captured at Preston. Beheaded.
- Francis I.** King of France, 1515-47. At war with Charles V, Holy Roman Emperor, during most of his reign.
- Frederick, Prince of Wales.** Son of George II. Not on good terms with his father. Friendly with the Tories. Flattered by Bolingbroke as the future Patriot King. Died, 1751.
- Frederick the Great.** King of Prussia, 1740-86. Conquered Silesia from Maria Theresa. Hard struggle against Austria, France, and Russia during the Seven Years War, but helped by Great Britain with men and money.
- Frobisher, Sir Martin.** Three voyages, 1576-7-8, in trying to discover North-West passage.
- Gama, Vasco da.** The first Portuguese seaman to reach India by way of Cape of Good Hope, in 1498.
- George I.** Son of Sophia, and great-grandson of James I. King of Great Britain, 1714-27. Elector of Hanover, 1694-1727. Little interest in government of Great Britain, which he left to Whig ministers.
- George II.** Son of George I. King of Great Britain, 1727-60. More interest in Hanover than in Great Britain. Commanded British Army in Battle of Dettingen, 1743.
- George III.** Son of Frederick, Prince of Wales, and grandson of George II. King of Great Britain, 1760-1820.

George of Denmark. Husband of Queen Anne.

Gilbert, Sir Humphrey. Wrote a *Discourse* to explain the importance of the North-West passage. Tried, and failed, to found a colony in Newfoundland. His ship, the *Squirrel*, was lost in a storm in the Atlantic, 1583.

Grenville, Sir Richard. Sent by Raleigh to found a colony in Virginia, 1585. Fought a Spanish fleet of fifty-three ships with his one ship, the *Revenge*, in 1591.

Grey, Lady Jane. Daughter-in-law of Northumberland, who proclaimed her Queen on the death of Edward VI. Mary became Queen and sent Jane to the Tower. Beheaded, 1554.

Grey, Lord. Lord Deputy of Ireland. Crushed Desmond revolt, 1579-84.

Hakluyt, Richard. Wrote an account of the voyages of Elizabethan seamen.

Hampden, John. Gentleman of Buckinghamshire. Refused to pay ship-money, but when the case was tried he was ordered to pay. Member of the Long Parliament. Wounded in the Battle of Chalgrove Field, 1643, and died soon after.

Harley, Robert, Earl of Oxford. Tory statesman. Lord Treasurer towards end of Anne's reign. Would not help the Pretender to succeed Anne unless he changed his religion. Quarrel with Bolingbroke. Anne dismissed Harley.

Hawke, Lord. British admiral. Defeated French fleet in the Battle of Quiberon Bay, 1759.

Hawkins, Sir John. Three slave voyages, 1562-4-7. Became Treasurer of the navy and had many ships built. Rear-Admiral of the English fleet against the Armada. Died on voyage to the West Indies with Drake, 1595.

Hawkins, William. Captain of an East India Company's ship. Sailed to Surat, 1608. Travelled overland to Agra, to the court of the Mogul Emperor, Jehangir.

Hawley, Henry. British general. Defeated by Charles Edward in Battle of Falkirk, 1746. Served under Cumberland in Battle of Culloden, 1746.

Henrietta Maria. Daughter of Henry IV, King of France. Queen of Charles I. Roman Catholic.

Henry VII. King of England, 1485-1509. The first Tudor king. Overcame all rivals and pretenders, and reduced the power of the nobles.

Henry VIII. Son of Henry VII. King of England, 1509-47. Married six times. Made himself Head of the Church of England. Destroyed the monasteries. Strengthened the navy.

Henry, Duke of Gloucester. Youngest son of Charles I. Died, 1660.

Henry, Duke of York. Younger son of James, the Pretender. Became priest and cardinal in the Roman Catholic Church. After death of his brother, Charles Edward, claimed to be King of Great Britain as Henry IX. Died, 1807.

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Holinshed. In the reign of Elizabeth wrote *History of England*.

Howard of Effingham, Lord. Commanded English fleet against the Armada, 1588.

Hudson, Henry. English explorer. Discovered Hudson Bay. Crew mutinied, and sent him adrift in an open boat, 1611.

Isabella. Queen of Castile, 1474-1504. Married to Ferdinand of Aragon. Mother of Catherine of Aragon. Provided Columbus with ships for his first voyage.

James IV. King of Scotland, 1488-1513. Married Margaret Tudor, daughter of Henry VII. Killed in the Battle of Flodden, 1513.

James V. Son of James IV. King of Scotland, 1513-42. Married Mary of Guise. Died after the Battle of Solway Moss, 1542.

James VI and I. Son of Mary Stuart, and grandson of James V. King of Scotland, 1567-1625. King of England, 1603-25. Assumed title of King of Great Britain. Wanted to unite the two countries, but neither nation was willing.

James II. Second son of Charles I. King of Great Britain, 1685-8. Roman Catholic. Offended people of all classes and parties. Fled to France and lost the throne, 1688. Tried, and failed, to recover Ireland, 1689-90. Lived in France till his death in 1701.

James. Known as the Old Pretender. Son of James II. Assumed title of James III, 1701-66. Tried, and failed, to obtain throne in 1715 revolt. Lived at Rome for many years.

Jeffreys, George. Lord Chief Justice in the reign of James II. Very cruel to prisoners tried in the Bloody Assize.

Jehangir. Mogul Emperor, in India, 1605-27. Allowed English East India Company to trade at Surat.

Jenkins, Captain. Sea captain, who stated that his ear had been cut off by Spanish who searched his ship in the West Indies. This led to war with Spain, 1739-48.

Jonson, Ben. Poet and dramatist in time of Elizabeth and James I.

Joyce. Cornet of Ironsides who took Charles I from Holmby House to Newmarket, 1647.

Juxon, William. Bishop of London. Close friend of Charles I. Advised King not to agree to execution of Strafford. Went with King to his execution. Archbishop of Canterbury, 1660-3.

Kenmure, Lord. One of the leaders of the 1715 revolt in the Lowlands of Scotland. Beheaded.

Kildare, Fitzgerald, Earl of. The eighth earl was Lord Deputy of Ireland under Henry VII, and the ninth earl was Lord Deputy under Henry VIII.

Knox, John. Scottish Protestant reformer in the sixteenth century.

La Bourdonnais. French admiral. Governor of Mauritius. Captured Madras, 1746.

Lally. Governor of Pondicherry, 1758–61. Captured Fort St. David from English, but failed to take Madras. Defeated by Coote in the Battle of Wandewash, 1760. Besieged in Pondicherry by Coote, and captured.

Lane, Jane. Lady who assisted Charles II, disguised as her servant, to escape after the Battle of Worcester, 1651.

Latimer, Hugh. Bishop of Worcester in the reign of Henry VIII. Protestant, but left unharmed by the King. Burned by Mary, 1555.

Laud, William. Archbishop of Canterbury in the reign of Charles I. Opposed to the Puritans. Restored order in the Church of England. Tried, with the King, to introduce Prayer Book into Church of Scotland. Sent to the Tower by the Long Parliament. Beheaded, 1645.

Leicester, Robert Dudley, Earl of. Favourite of Queen Elizabeth. Commanded English army in Netherlands, 1585–6. Commanded English forces at Tilbury, 1588.

Louis XIV. King of France, 1643–1715. Aimed at becoming the most powerful monarch in Europe. Opposed by Dutch under William of Orange. Friendly with Charles II and James II. Supported James after the Revolution. Wars of League of Augsburg and Spanish Succession with England. Though beaten in War of Spanish Succession he secured throne of Spain for his grandson, Philip V.

Luther, Martin. German reformer. Supported by most people in north Germany, but not in south Germany. Lutheranism strong in Germany, but not elsewhere.

MacIan. Chief of the MacDonalds of Glencoe. Too late in taking the oath of allegiance to William. Massacre of Glencoe, 1693.

Mackintosh, Brigadier. One of the leaders of the 1715 revolt.

Magellan. Portuguese seaman in Spanish service. Sailed through Strait of Magellan and across Pacific. Killed in Ladrone Islands, but his ship returned to Spain by way of the Cape of Good Hope—the first to sail round the world, 1519–22.

Mar, John Erskine, Earl of. Leader of Highlanders in 1715 revolt. Defeated by Argyll in the Battle of Sheriffmuir. Escaped to France.

Marco Polo. Venetian traveller to Cathay (China) in the thirteenth century.

Margaret Tudor. Daughter of Henry VII. Married to James IV, King of Scotland, 1503.

Maria Theresa. Archduchess of Austria. Daughter of Charles VI, Holy Roman Emperor. Lost Silesia to Frederick the Great at the beginning of the Austrian Succession War, 1740. Failed to recover it in the Seven Years War, 1756–63.

Marlborough, John Churchill, Duke of. Captain-general of the English and Dutch armies in the War of the Spanish Succession. Victories of Blenheim, Ramillies, Oudenarde, and Malplaquet. Popular with his troops. Became unpopular with the people at home because of length of war. Removed from his command, 1711.

Marlborough, Sarah Churchill, Duchess of. Close friend of Queen Anne for several years. Haughty and overbearing. At length she lost the favour of the Queen and left the court.

Marlowe, Christopher. Dramatist in Elizabeth's reign. Killed in a quarrel in an inn.

Mary I. Daughter of Henry VIII. Queen of England, 1553-8. Married to Philip II, King of Spain. Burned Protestants. War with France. Lost Calais.

Mary II. Daughter of James II. Married to William III. Queen of Great Britain, 1689-94, with William as King, 1689-1702.

Mary of Guise. Queen of James V, King of Scotland, and mother of Mary Stuart. Ruled Scotland as Regent for Mary, 1542-60.

Mary Stuart. Daughter of James V, King of Scotland. Queen of Scotland, 1542-67. Lived in France, 1547-61. Married to Francis II, King of France, who died in 1560. Returned to Scotland, 1561. Married to Darnley, 1565. Darnley murdered, 1567. Mary married to Bothwell, 1567. Revolt of Scottish lords. Mary deposed, and imprisoned in Loch Leven Castle. Escaped. Battle of Langside. Flight into England. Captive of Elizabeth, 1568-87. Beheaded for plotting against Elizabeth.

Masham, Lady. Favourite of Queen Anne towards end of her reign.

Medina Sidonia, Duke of. Commanded the Armada, 1588.

Middlesex, Lionel Cranfield, Earl of. Lord High Treasurer in reign of James I. Impeached for stealing public money, 1624.

Milton, John. Puritan poet. Blind. Wrote *Paradise Lost*.

Mohammed Ali. Nabob of the Carnatic. Besieged by Chunda Sahib and the French in Trichinopoli. Relieved after Clive's capture of Arcot, 1751. Became Nabob when Chunda Sahib died, 1753.

Monk, George. Ruled Scotland, under Cromwell, 1651-60. Marched south and invited Charles II to return to England. Became Duke of Albemarle. Fought at sea in Dutch War, 1665-7.

Monmouth, Duke of. Leader of a rebellion in south-west England against James II. Defeated at Battle of Sedgemoor. Beheaded.

Montcalm, Marquis of. French governor of Quebec. Killed in battle when Quebec was taken by Wolfe, 1759.

Monteagle, Lord. Tresham's brother-in-law, who was warned not to go to the meeting of Parliament in 1605. This led to the discovery of the Gunpowder Plot.

Montrose, James Graham, Marquis of. Led rising in Scotland for Charles II. Captured by Argyll and put to death, 1650.

More, Sir Thomas. Lord Chancellor after Wolsey, in the reign of Henry VIII. Refused to recognise Henry's right to divorce Catherine of Aragon. Beheaded, 1535.

Morgan, Sir Henry. Leader of the buccaneers in the West Indies. Afterwards Governor of Jamaica.

Morton, John. Archbishop of Canterbury. Cardinal. Planned Morton's Fork for obtaining benevolences for Henry VII.

Mountjoy, Charles Blount, Lord. Crushed the O'Neill revolt in Ireland, 1603.

Murray, James. British general. Defended Quebec from French attack, 1759-60. Governor of Canada, 1763-8.

Newcastle, Thomas Pelham, Duke of. Secretary of State, 1724-56. Prime Minister, 1757-61. Little interest in the work of government. Established the Whig System.

Newport, Christopher. Leader of the settlers who went to Virginia, 1607.

Nithsdale, Lord. One of the leaders of the 1715 revolt. Sentenced to death, but he escaped from the Tower in his wife's clothing.

Northumberland, John Dudley, Duke of. Ruled England for Edward VI after fall of Somerset, 1549-53. Protestant. Tried, and failed, to make Lady Jane Grey Queen after the death of Edward. Beheaded.

Oates, Titus. Gave information about a supposed Popish Plot in 1678. Many Roman Catholics put to death.

Oglethorpe, James. British general. Founded Georgia, 1732.

O'Neill, Hugh. Earl of Tyrone. Revolted, 1598. Revolt crushed by Mountjoy, 1603. Revolted again, 1607. Revolt crushed by Sir Arthur Chichester. O'Neill fled. Forfeited title and lands. English and Scottish settlers on O'Neill's lands in Ulster.

Ormond, James Butler, Duke of. Supported Charles I and Charles II in Ireland. Defeated by Cromwell, 1649. After the Restoration Ormond became Lord Lieutenant of Ireland.

Parma, Duke of. Commanded Spanish Army in Netherlands, 1578-93. Failed to put down the revolt of the Netherlands.

Penn, Sir William. English admiral. Captured Jamaica, 1655.

Penn, William. Son of Admiral Penn. Quaker. Founded Pennsylvania, 1681.

Pepys, Samuel. Treasurer of the navy in the reign of Charles II. Much information about London life in his *Diary*.

Philip II. King of Spain, 1556-98. Married Mary Tudor. Wished to marry Elizabeth in order to keep English alliance against France. She declined. Philip became unfriendly with England. Armada, 1588.

Philip V. Grandson of Louis XIV. King of Spain, 1700-46. His claim to Spanish throne opposed by England and Holland in the War of the Spanish Succession, but he was recognised as King of Spain in the Treaty of Utrecht, 1713.

Pitt, William. Earl of Chatham. Whig, but disliked the Whig System. Secretary of State, 1757-61. Planned British victories in the Seven Years War.

Pocahontas. Daughter of an Indian chief, Powhatan. Saved the life of Captain John Smith.

Pole, Reginald. Cardinal. Lived at Rome in the time of Henry VIII. Friend of Mary, who made him Archbishop of Canterbury.

Porteous, John. Captain of the Guard in Edinburgh. Ordered his men to fire on people who tried to rescue two smugglers from execution. Sentenced to death for murder, but pardoned by the Queen. Murdered by the mob, 1736.

Raleigh, Sir Walter. Favourite of Queen Elizabeth. Tried, and failed, to found a colony in Virginia. Concerned in a plot against James I, 1604. Sentenced to death, but imprisoned in the Tower for twelve years. Wrote *History of the World*. Released to go to South America to find the City of Manoa, the city of gold. Failed, and returned. Beheaded, 1618.

Richard III. King of England, 1483-5. Last king of the House of York. Killed in Battle of Bosworth, 1485.

Ridley, Nicholas. Bishop of London in the reign of Edward VI. Burned with Latimer at Oxford by order of Mary, 1555.

Rizzio, David. Secretary to Mary Stuart, Queen of Scots. Murdered by Darnley and his friends, 1566.

Roe, Sir Thomas. Ambassador of James I to Jehangir, Mogul Emperor. Emperor friendly with him. Emperor gave the English permission to trade at Surat, 1615.

Rooke, Sir George. English admiral. Captured Gibraltar, 1704.

Rupert, Prince. Grandson of James I and nephew of Charles I. Commanded the King's cavalry in the Great Rebellion. After the death of Charles, made war on English shipping in the Channel and the Bay of Biscay, but defeated by Blake. Lived in England in the reign of Charles II. Fought in Dutch War. One of the founders of the Hudson's Bay Company and the Royal African Company.

Sarsfield, Patrick. Irish leader against William III. Afterwards commanded Irish brigade in the French army. Marshal of France. Killed in Battle of Landen, 1693.

Shakespeare, William. Poet and dramatist of the time of Elizabeth and James I. The greatest English dramatist.

Shovell, Sir Cloudesley. English admiral. With Rooke in the capture of Gibraltar, 1704.

- Sidney, Sir Philip.** Favourite of Queen Elizabeth. Poet. Fought for the Dutch in their revolt against Spain. Wounded at Zutphen. Died, 1586.
- Simnel, Lambert.** Pretended to be Earl of Warwick, and claimed the throne in the time of Henry VII. Defeated in Battle of Stoke. Entered Henry's service. Later, became his falconer.
- Siraj-ud-Daula.** Nabob of Bengal. Captured Calcutta, 1756. Black Hole of Calcutta. Defeated by Clive at Battle of Plassey, 1757. Murdered by his own people.
- Skeffington, Sir William.** Lord Deputy of Ireland in the reign of Henry VIII. Crushed the revolt of the Fitzgeralds of Kildare.
- Smith, John.** Captain. Many adventures. Became Governor of Virginia. When captured by Indians his life was saved by Pocahontas.
- Somers, Sir George.** Wrecked on Bermuda on the way to Virginia, 1609. Built a ship in Bermuda and reached Virginia, 1610. This led to a settlement in Bermuda, 1612.
- Somerset, Edward Seymour, Duke of.** Protector for Edward VI. Beheaded for treason.
- Sophia.** Granddaughter of James I and sister of Prince Rupert. Chosen by Parliament to succeed Queen Anne. Died before Anne, so that her son, George I, became King after Anne's death.
- Sophia Dorothea.** Queen of George I. Imprisoned by him, 1694-1726.
- Spenser, Edmund.** Poet of the time of Elizabeth. Wrote *Faerie Queene*.
- Stow, John.** Wrote *Chronicles of London*, in the time of Queen Elizabeth.
- Strafford, Thomas Wentworth, Earl of.** Friend of Charles I. Lord Deputy of Ireland. Impeached by Long Parliament. Sentenced to death by Act of Attainder. King failed to save him, 1641.
- Strongbow, Richard.** Earl of Pembroke. Began conquest of Ireland in the reign of Henry II. Many Norman nobles went with him and settled in Ireland, 1170.
- Tresham, Francis.** One of the Gunpowder plotters. Warned Lord Montague not to go to the meeting of Parliament in 1605. This led to the discovery of the Gunpowder Plot. Tresham died in the Tower while awaiting trial.
- Tromp.** Dutch admiral. Opposed to Blake in Dutch war, 1652-3. Killed in the Battle of the Texel.
- Tyndale, William.** Translated the New Testament into English. Burned at Antwerp as a heretic.
- Vespucci, Amerigo.** Explored coast of Central America and north coast of South America, 1499-1500. Wrote *The New World*, a book about his travels. America was named after him.
- Walker, George.** Clergyman who organised the defence of Londonderry against James II, 1689. Became Bishop of Londonderry. Killed in the Battle of the Boyne, 1690.

- Walpole, Sir Robert.** Whig statesman. Prime Minister, 1721-42. The first Prime Minister. Policy of peace.
- Warbeck, Perkin.** Pretended to be Duke of York, son of Edward IV, and claimed the throne in the time of Henry VII. Captured and sent to the Tower, 1497. Hanged at Tyburn, 1499.
- Warwick, Edward, Earl of.** Nephew of Edward IV. Imprisoned in the Tower by Henry VII lest he should claim the throne. Beheaded, 1499.
- Washington, George.** Virginian planter. With a party of Virginians attacked Fort Duquesne, 1754, but was defeated and captured by the French. Afterwards, commanded American forces in the War of Independence. Became first President of the United States, 1789-97.
- Wesley, Charles.** Brother of John Wesley. Wrote many hymns.
- Wesley, John.** Clergyman who travelled about the country preaching to large crowds. Visited every town, and nearly every village. Founded the society known as the Methodists.
- Whitefield, George.** One of the Methodists who separated from Wesley and founded the society known as the Calvinistic Methodists.
- William III.** Prince of Orange. King of Great Britain, 1689-1702. Ruler of Holland, 1673-1702. Enemy of Louis XIV, whom he opposed in the Dutch War of 1672-8 and the War of the League of Augsburg, 1689-97.
- Williams, Roger.** Puritan clergyman who founded the colony of Rhode Island, 1636. Tolerated all forms of Christianity.
- Willoughby, Sir Hugh.** Tried to discover North-East passage. Died of exposure to cold.
- Winthrop, John.** First Governor of Massachusetts.
- Wolfe, James.** Captured Quebec, 1759, but died in the battle.
- Wolsey, Thomas.** Archbishop of York. Cardinal. Lord Chancellor in the reign of Henry VIII. Henry's chief minister for fifteen years. Failed to become Pope. In disgrace with Henry because he was unable to obtain Henry's divorce from Catherine of Aragon. Arrested for treason at York. Died at Leicester, on his way to London, 1530. Founded Christ Church College, Oxford.
- Wren, Sir Christopher.** Architect who built St. Paul's Cathedral and more than fifty churches in London after the Great Fire of 1666.
- Wycliffe, John.** English priest in the fourteenth century. Saw need for reform in the Church, and proposed that it should give up its wealth. "The Morning Star of the Reformation."

GLOSSARY

- abbot (abbess).** The chief monk (or nun) in an abbey.
- abdicate.** To give up a throne and cease to be a king.
- allegiance.** The duty which all men owe to the King.
- ally.** A friend, or partner, in a war.
- altar.** The communion table in a church; nowadays, it is always at the east end of a church.
- Ancient times.** The period of the great empires and peoples of long ago. The last of these empires was the Roman Empire.
- Antichrist.** The great enemy of Christ.
- apostle.** One of the twelve men appointed by Christ to preach the gospel to all the world. The word means "messenger."
- apprentice.** A boy or young man who is learning a trade or craft.
- arable land.** Ploughed land, on which corn and other crops are grown.
- archbishop.** A chief bishop, with authority over other bishops.
- archery.** Shooting with a bow.
- architect.** A man who designs a building.
- Armada.** Any great force, on land or sea; especially, the great fleet sent in 1588 by Philip II, King of Spain, to conquer England.
- artificer.** A skilled workman.
- Attainder, Act of.** An Act of Parliament by which a man is declared to be guilty of treason and is sentenced to death. (There need be no trial of an accused man before an Act of Attainder is passed.)
- banish.** To send a person out of the country
- baron.** A nobleman of the lowest rank of nobility.
- barrister.** A lawyer who conducts cases in the King's courts.
- bear-baiting.** A cruel sport in which a bear, with its hind leg chained to a stake, was attacked by dogs (mastiffs and wolfhounds).
- benevolence.** A gift of money to the King, supposed to be made by a man who has a feeling of benevolence, or good will, towards the King.
- bishop.** A clergyman of high rank, with authority over the priests in his diocese.
- blockade.** In war, surrounding a country with troops or ships to stop its trade, and so to starve it into submission.
- bodyguard.** Soldiers who attend the King in order to protect him from attack.
- bow.** A weapon with which arrows are shot.

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bowls. A game played on a green with balls, called woods, which are rolled towards a small white ball called a jack. The woods have a bias, i.e. they do not run in a straight line, but in a slight curve.

brigade. A body of soldiers consisting of several regiments.

brigadier. An officer who commands a brigade.

buccaneers. Pirates, mostly English and French, in the West Indies in the latter part of the seventeenth century.

bull-baiting. A cruel sport, in which a bull was attacked by bull-dogs. The bull was sometimes, though not always, attached to a stake.

calendar. A table of days, months, and years.

campaign. The series of movements of armies in a war. It may include a battle or several battles.

captain-general. The commander-in-chief of an army in the early part of the eighteenth century.

cardinal. A prince of the Roman Catholic Church. Cardinals rank next to the Pope in the Church. As a rule, though not always, cardinals are archbishops or bishops. When a pope dies, the cardinals choose one of themselves to be the next pope.

cathedral. A church which contains the throne of a bishop. (Strictly speaking, the word "cathedral" is an adjective; we should speak of a cathedral church, and not simply of a cathedral.)

catholic. Universal. The word is applied to the whole Christian Church. The Roman Church claims that other religious bodies are not churches at all, so that it alone is the whole Church and it alone is Catholic.

century. One hundred years. The first year of a century ends with the figure 1, and the last year with the figures 00. Thus, the period 1601-1700 is a century.

Centuries are numbered. The period 1-100 was the *first* century; 101-200 was the *second* century; 1601-1700 was the *seventeenth* century.

champion. One who fights for another person, or for some cause in which he is interested.

Chancellor, Lord. The King's chief minister in England before there was a Prime Minister. The Lord Chancellor keeps the Great Seal, and he is the chief of the King's judges. He is the chairman of the House of Lords.

Chancellor of the Exchequer. The minister who attends to the finances of the nation.

Charlies. Watchmen in the streets of London before the establishment of the Metropolitan Police Force.

church. 1. The whole body of Christian people throughout the world.
2. Any group of Christian people, such as the Church of England, the Roman Catholic Church, the Presbyterian Church.

- city.** An important town, the "see" of a bishop.
- civilisation.** The way of life of people who are not savage or brutal or barbaric. A state of society in which law and order are observed and people respect one another's rights.
- clan.** A tribe of Scottish Highlanders, loyal to a chief, and having its own tartan, or plaid.
- Clarendon Code.** A set of laws against the Puritans, passed while Clarendon was Chancellor, though he did not draw them up.
- claymore.** A broadsword used by Scottish Highlanders.
- cock-fighting.** Fighting between two cocks which are trained to attack each other with their claws. Steel spurs were sometimes fastened on the claws.
- college.** A place of higher education, connected with a university. It is governed by a body of learned men called fellows.
- colonel.** An officer who commands a regiment.
- colony.** A settlement overseas.
- commissariat.** The supply of provisions to an army.
- Commons, House of.** The lower House of the British Parliament, containing members elected by the people.
- Commonwealth.** 1. A republic.
2. The Government of England for eleven years after the death of Charles I.
- cornet.** Formerly, an officer of the lowest rank in a cavalry regiment. Such an officer is now a second lieutenant.
- corsairs.** Mohammedan pirates in the Mediterranean, who lived in towns on the north coast of Africa.
- count.** A nobleman on the continent of Europe, equal in rank to an English earl. (The feminine form of both "count" and "earl" is "countess.")
- Counter-Reformation.** The movement in the Roman Catholic Church against the Reformation. It was an attempt to reform the Roman Catholic Church.
- Covenant.** An agreement entered into by Scottish people in 1638 to use every possible means to uphold the Presbyterian Church.
- dates.** Our system of dates is reckoned from the birth of Christ. The years since Christ's birth are styled A.D. (*Anno Domini*—in the year of our Lord.)
- dead men.** Empty wine bottles after a dinner-party. ("Down among the dead men let him lie.")
- depose.** To put a king off the throne.
- depot.** A store-house for goods.
- Deputy, Lord.** An official sent to rule Ireland.
- diocese.** The district under the care of a bishop.
- disciple.** A pupil or follower of some great man.

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Divine Right of Kings. The idea that kings are appointed by God to rule their people.

divorce. 1. In former times, a declaration that a marriage was null and void, that, in fact, it had never been a proper marriage.
(This was the divorce that Henry VIII tried to obtain.)

2. To-day, the dissolving of a marriage.

dominions. The countries or provinces ruled by a king are his dominions.

dramatist. A person who writes stage-plays.

duel. A fight, often to the death, between two men, one of whom had offended the other. The person challenged to a duel had the right to choose weapons.

duke. A nobleman of the highest rank.

duty. A payment to be made when goods are imported into a country. Sometimes there are export duties also.

earl. A nobleman higher in rank than a viscount but below a marquis.

elector. 1. One of the princes of the Holy Roman Empire who chose the emperor.

2. A voter at any election.

Emperor. The title of a sovereign who was higher in rank than a king. The Holy Roman Emperor claimed to be "Lord of the World."

excise. A duty levied on certain goods made in a country.

excommunicate. To cast out of the Church. (It was believed by Roman Catholics that no man could be saved except by belonging to the Church; to cast a man out of the Church was to send him to hell, unless the excommunication was removed before his death.)

exile. To send out of one's native country.

export. To send goods out of a country.

factory. 1. A depot for trade, as in India and in the Hudson Bay Territory.

2. A building in which goods are made, usually by machinery.

falcon. A kind of hawk which was trained to attack and kill other birds. The falcon's eyes were covered with a hood until it was released.

falconer. A man who carried a falcon on his wrist.

fallow. Arable land that is left without crops for a year in order that it may become fertile again.

footpad. A man who waited on foot, on roads or lanes, to rob travellers.

friar. A man who belonged to one of the orders founded by St. Francis, St. Dominic, and others. The word means "brother."

Friends, Society of. A religious body often known as Quakers.

fuller. A workman who cleansed and thickened cloth.

galley. A long low ship of war. Though sails were sometimes used, the galley was usually rowed. The oarsmen were often, but not always, slaves. French galleys were rowed by criminals who were "sent to the galleys."

garrison. The body of soldiers whose duty it was to defend a castle or a town from attack.

general. 1. The commander of the New Model Army.

2. Any officer in command of an army.

gild. A society of merchants or craftsmen.

glossary. A list of unusual words, with their meanings.

grammar school. A school in which boys were taught Latin grammar.

Hanseatic League. A league of German towns whose merchants traded with all parts of Northern Europe.

hawking. Hunting birds with hawks or falcons trained for this purpose.

heretic. A person who did not believe in some part of the teaching of the Church. Heretics were thought to be evil, and might be put to death; the usual way was by burning at the stake.

highwayman. A mounted man who waited on highroads to rob travellers.

Huguenots. French Protestants.

impeachment. A trial, usually, but not always, for treason, in which the prisoner is accused by the House of Commons, and tried by the House of Lords.

import. To bring goods into a country.

Incas. The ancient people of Peru, and especially their rulers. The King was known as "The Inca." The Incas were conquered by Pizarro.

incense. A spice which gives out a pleasant scent when burned. Used in the services of the Roman Catholic Church and sometimes of the Church of England.

Indians. 1. The inhabitants of India.

2. The native inhabitants of North America. So called because the earliest travellers to America thought they had reached the Indies.

indulgences. In the Roman Catholic Church, a reduction in the punishment for sin, i.e. a shorter time in purgatory. Granted by the Pope. Sometimes granted for as much as 20,000 years. Sinner was expected to be sorry for his sins. Indulgences sometimes granted in return for payments of money.

Infanta. A princess of Spain

Inquisition. A court in the Roman Catholic Church which was used for finding and punishing heretics.

interloper. Adventurers who traded in a region which was in the monopoly of a chartered company, but who were not members of the company.

Ironsides. A body of cavalry raised and trained by Oliver Cromwell in the Great Rebellion. The name was first given to them by Rupert after the Battle of Marston Moor.

Iroquois. A group of Indian tribes in North America. The name means "the five nations"; there were actually six tribes. They always fought for the British against the French.

isthmus. A narrow stretch of land which joins two large pieces of land.

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Jacobites. Followers of the exiled Stuarts. The Latin word for "James" is "Jacobus."

Jesuits. Members of the Society of Jesus. A body of priests whose special duty was to reconvert Protestants to the Roman Catholic Church. Jesuits also did missionary work among the heathen.

Kirk. The Scottish Presbyterian Church.

knave. A rogue or rascal.

laird. A Scottish landowner, like an English squire.

Latin. The language of ancient Rome, used in the services of the Roman Catholic Church. It was used also by learned men in all countries; their books were often written in Latin so that they might be understood by the learned men of other countries.

legate. An archbishop or bishop (often, but not always, a cardinal) appointed to represent the Pope, and given special powers by him.

lieutenant-general. 1. Second-in-command of the New Model Army. Cromwell was lieutenant-general until Fairfax resigned, when he became general.

2. An officer in the British army higher in rank than a major-general, but below a general.

link-man. A man who carried a torch to light the way for a traveller.

loom. A machine for weaving cloth.

lord. A nobleman of any rank of nobility below that of a duke may be called "Lord —."

Lords, House of. The upper House of the British Parliament, containing lords and bishops.

mace. 1. A long iron bar with a knob at the end; formerly used in battle by priests and bishops.

2. A similar bar, gilded and ornamented, which is placed on the table of the House of Commons when the House is sitting.

magistrate. A person who holds a court for the trial of persons accused of offences which are not very important. If the offence is serious the magistrate hears the charge and orders the accused person to be tried in a higher court.

marquis. A nobleman higher in rank than an earl, but below a duke.

marshal. An army officer of the highest rank. In the British army and some others he is called a Field-Marshal.

martyr. A person who suffers death for his religion. (The word means "witness"; a martyr is a witness to the truth of his faith.)

mass. The chief service of the Roman Catholic Church. Also called the Eucharist.

massacre. The murder of a number of people at one time.

medieval. The adjective relating to the term "Middle Ages." (The periods of history are Ancient, Medieval, and Modern.)

mercenaries. Professional soldiers who were willing to fight for any leader or any country in return for pay.

Merchant Adventurers. A company of merchants who held a monopoly of trade with places in Europe from Denmark to the mouth of the River Somme. They also traded with Norway and with countries as far away as the Mediterranean, but they had no monopoly of this trade.

merchant prince. A merchant who had grown very rich by trading.

Methodists. 1. A society of tutors and students at Oxford in the eighteenth century, who resolved to lead holy lives.
2. The church which, through the preaching of John Wesley, was developed out of the original Oxford Society.

Middle Ages. The period of history between Ancient times and Modern times—between the fall of the Roman Empire in the fifth century and the Renaissance in the fifteenth century.

minister. The word means a "servant."

1. A leader of the friars,
2. A clergyman of any church.
3. A statesman who, by ruling a country or advising a king how to rule it, is a servant of that country.

missionary. A person who goes out to preach his religion to the heathen.

Modern times. The period of history since the Renaissance in the fifteenth century.

Mohocks. Men who attacked and wounded people in the streets of London in the eighteenth century.

monastery. A religious house in which monks or nuns live apart from the world.

monopoly. The sole right of making an article or trading with a particular country.

nabob. 1. The ruler of an Indian state.

2. A servant of the East India Company who came home very rich was sometimes called a nabob.

National Debt. The public debt of the nation. It was started in the reign of William III. Most of the wars since that time have been paid for with borrowed money. The National Debt has been slightly reduced in times of peace and greatly increased in time of war.

nationality. The feeling of belonging to a nation and of being proud of it.

New Model. The army raised and trained by Fairfax and Cromwell during the Great Rebellion. The men wore red uniforms. The New Model defeated the King at the Battle of Naseby. It won the second Civil war in 1648 and continued throughout the Commonwealth. It was disbanded by Charles II, except for two regiments of foot and a few troops of horse; these were the beginning of the modern British army.

New World. The continent of America. So called because it was unknown to the people of Europe until the beginning of Modern times.

Nizam. The ruler of the state of Hyderabad, in India.

noble. A man of high rank, above that of the common people, and bearing a title conferred by the King upon him or his ancestors. In Great Britain there are five ranks of nobility—duke, marquis, earl, viscount, and baron.

North-East passage. The way to India and the east by the north of Europe and Asia. Blocked with ice.

North-West passage. The way to India and the east by the north of North America. Blocked with ice.

page. A boy who waited on lords and ladies and learned to be polite and of good manners.

Parliament. An assembly consisting of King, House of Lords, and House of Commons. Parliament makes laws and levies taxes.

Paymaster-General. The official who pays out money on behalf of the Government.

peer. A nobleman.

persecution. The punishment of people on account of their religion.

philosopher. A person who studies the causes and effects of anything and everything in nature. The word means "lover of wisdom."

pike. A weapon carried by foot-soldiers. It consisted of a long wooden handle with a pointed head of iron or steel.

Pilgrim Fathers. The Puritans who crossed the Atlantic in the *Mayflower* and settled at Plymouth.

pillory. A frame with holes through which the head and hands of a criminal were fixed, as a punishment.

pirate. One who robs and murders at sea.

plantation. A colony; especially, a colony in which slave labour was used.

poor-rate. A tax for the support of the poor.

Pope. The Bishop of Rome. Head of the Roman Catholic Church.

Popish plot. A plot invented by Titus Oates in 1678, and announced by him for the sake of reward.

Presbyterianism. A form of the Christian religion in which there are no bishops, but all the clergy are of equal rank.

Pretender. A person who claimed to be the rightful king. The Old Pretender was James (son of James II), who claimed to be James III. The Young Pretender was Charles Edward (son of the Old Pretender), who claimed to be Charles III.

priest. Most of the clergy of the Church of England and the Roman Catholic Church are priests. Priests are subject to the authority of bishops.

Prime Minister. The chief minister in a country, who appoints other ministers and presides at meetings of ministers.

professor. A teacher of the highest rank in a university.

Protector. 1. A regent. A person who rules in place of a king or queen who is too young to rule or who is ill.

2. The ruler of England in the time of the Commonwealth.

Protestant. A person who is opposed to the Roman Catholic Church.

purgatory. A place or state in which, after death, people are purged or cleansed of their sins and made fit to enter heaven. The Roman Catholic Church teaches the existence of purgatory. Protestants do not believe in it.

Puritan. An extreme kind of Protestant, one who wanted a very pure form of religion. Entirely opposed to the Roman Catholic Church.

Quaker. A member of the Society of Friends. Quakers believe in a spiritual religion without any ceremony in public worship.

queen. 1. A female king; a lady who rules just as a king would rule. (If there is more than one such queen with the same name they are numbered like kings, e.g., Mary II.)
2. The wife of a king. (These queens are not numbered.)

rajah. The ruler of an Indian state.

recant. To deny what was formerly believed. The word is used chiefly of a heretic who gives up his heresy and returns to what he now thinks to be the true faith.

Reformation. The movement for the reform of the Church in the sixteenth century. Actually, the Reformation did not reform the Church, but caused it to split up.

regent. A person who rules in place of a king or queen who is too young to rule or who is ill.

Renaissance. The revival of learning at the close of the Middle Ages.

republic. A country which has no king, but has as its head a president elected by the people.

retainer. A man who lived on the lands of a great lord, wore his badge, and served him in war.

revolution. An important change of government, in which one line of kings replaces another, or a republic replaces a monarchy, or one political party replaces another. A revolution may take place by force and may involve bloodshed, or it may be peaceful.

rovers. Pirates in the English Channel.

Rump. The few members of the House of Commons who were all that were left of the Long Parliament between 1648 and 1653.

saint. 1. A person of very holy life.

2. A person who has suffered as a martyr for his religion.

Secretary-at-War. Formerly, a minister who was responsible for the state of the army. Less important than a Secretary of State.

Secretary of State. An important minister who is responsible for a department of the government. In former times there were two Secretaries of State; now there are nine.

sedan chair. A covered chair, with two long poles by which it was carried.

see. The city from which a bishop takes his title.

sepoys. Indian native troops under the command of European officers.

sept. An Irish tribe or clan.

ship-money. A tax for the provision of ships. It was levied by Tudor kings and queens on the coast counties. It was levied by Charles I on inland counties as well. John Hampden refused to pay on the ground that it was illegal, since it had not been ordered by Parliament, but he lost his case.

slow-match. A piece of rope or cord, soaked in saltpetre. It would burn slowly and could be used to explode gunpowder.

smuggle. 1. To bring goods into a country without paying duty.

2. To trade in any way prohibited by law.

sonnet. A poem of fourteen lines, often in two parts, of eight lines and six lines. It expresses only one main thought. There is a regular order for the rhymes.

Spanish Main. The lands of Central America which border on the Caribbean Sea.

Speaker. The chairman of the House of Commons. So called because, in speaking to the King, he speaks on behalf of the whole House. He does not make speeches in the House.

statute. An important law passed by Parliament.

Steelyard. The depot of the Hanse merchants in London. It was where Cannon Street Station now stands.

stocks. A frame in which the legs of criminals were placed.

strategy. The planning of a campaign.

Stuart kings. Ruled in Scotland for over three hundred years and in England for nearly a century. Believed in the Divine Right of Kings.

System, the Whig. The system of giving favours to Whig members of Parliament in return for their support in the House of Commons. Established by the Duke of Newcastle.

tactics. The planning of a battle.

Thorough. Wentworth's system of rule in Ireland.

toleration. Freedom of religion.

Tory. One of the English political parties in the eighteenth century. Some Tories were Jacobites, but the New Tories supported the House of Hanover. In general, Tories were more inclined than the Whigs to support the King.

tournament. A meeting of knights at which various friendly (and sometimes unfriendly) fights took place.

train-bands. A body of young Londoners (apprentices and others) who were trained in the use of arms. They did their training in their spare time.

traitor. A person who is unfaithful to the King (by killing him or plotting to kill him, by rebelling against him, or by helping his enemies). The punishment of a traitor is death.

translation. The changing of a book from one language to another.

truce. An agreement between two countries at war not to fight for a certain time.

Tudor kings. English kings of the sixteenth century. Very powerful.

turnspit. A servant who turned the spit, an iron spike on which a joint of meat was roasted before a fire.

university. A place for higher learning, where young people can continue their education after they have left school.

usurper. A king or queen who has obtained a throne without having any right to it.

vassal. A landowner who held his land from a lord for whom he had to fight and to whom he was bound to be faithful.

Vicar-General. The title given by Henry VIII to Thomas Cromwell, whereby he was given power to dissolve the monasteries.

Vikings. Men from Norway who plundered the countries of Western Europe from the eighth century to the eleventh. Vikings also discovered Iceland, Greenland, and Vinland.

viscount. A noble higher in rank than a baron, but below an earl.

Whig. One of the English political parties of the eighteenth century. The Whigs were against the Divine Right of Kings; they upheld the power of Parliament over the King; they believed in religious toleration for Protestant Dissenters; they favoured the Revolution of 1689; they supported the House of Hanover.

witch. A woman who was believed to have sold her soul to the devil, who gave her power to do various evil things. Witches were sometimes burned to death.

SOME FURTHER QUESTIONS

1. What routes to India were known or attempted before the end of the sixteenth century?

2. Why were the Tudor kings and queens (a) popular, and (b) powerful?

3. Give three examples of the ungratefulness of kings and queens towards men who had served them well. Write four or five lines about each.

4. Mention four royal marriages in the sixteenth century, and state why each of them was important.

5. Write short accounts of the Rovers, the Corsairs, and the Buccaneers.

6. Mention three men who wished to reform the Church, but who did not become Protestants. Write five or six lines about each.

7. Write short accounts of four English cardinals of the Tudor period.

8. Write a life of Sir Walter Raleigh.

9. In what ways did Utopia differ from England?

10. Explain what is meant by the Divine Right of Kings.

11. What were the chief mistakes made by Charles I during his reign?

12. Explain the difference between an impeachment and an Act of Attainder.

13. What were the four Scottish invasions of England between 1640 and 1651? State why each of them took place, and with what results.

14. Who were the following: (a) Old Rowley, (b) "a knave and three fools," (c) "that good man," (d) the Butcher, (e) the butcher's son, (f) the Boys, (g) the Hammer of the Monks?

15. By whom, when, and why were these words spoken?

(a) Put not your trust in princes.

(b) Remember.

(c) My lord, we are exchanged.

(d) If you let me out to-day I will preach again to-morrow.

(e) We shall light a candle in England.

16. What wars were fought by the English during the Commonwealth period, and with what results?

17. Mention three or four famous pirates, and write a few lines about each of them.

18. For what are the following places noted: Moidart, Amboyna, Arcot, Loch Leven?

19. If the following people were sentenced to death, in what different ways were they executed: a common person, a heretic, a nobleman, a witch?

20. Make a list of the rebellions in Ireland between 1500 and 1700.

21. Why is the period 1689-1815 sometimes called the period of the second Hundred Years War?

22. What were the difficulties and troubles of the East India Company in the seventeenth century?

23. What names of colonies and towns in North America were derived from English kings, queens, or other members of the royal family?

24. In what ways were the northern colonies in North America different from the southern colonies?

25. What were the advantages of (a) the French, and (b) the British, in their struggle in North America?

26. Repeat as nearly as you can Walpole's description of Bolingbroke. Do you think it was deserved, and if so, why?

27. In what ways were the habits of the people of the seventeenth century worse than those of people of the twentieth century?

28. Explain the difference between

(a) a highwayman and a footpad.

(b) the Lord Chancellor and the Chancellor of the Exchequer.

(c) the Church of England and the Church of Scotland.

(d) Whigs and Tories.

(e) The North-East passage and the North-West passage.

29. Name four British admirals of the *eighteenth* century, and mention an important event in the career of each of them.

30. Name (a) the cleverest king, and (b) the cleverest queen, in the period covered by this book, and state why you choose them.

31. How were men punished in the seventeenth century (a) for serious crimes, and (b) for small offences?

32. Why was ocean travel difficult and dangerous in the period covered by this book?

33. For what reasons should Oliver Cromwell be regarded as a great man?

34. Mention three or four brave women (not queens) who lived in the period covered by this book, and state why they should be admired.

35. In the earlier part of this book this country is called England, and its people English; in the latter part the country is called Great Britain and the people British. Explain the reason for the change.

36. What was done by William Pitt to win the Seven Years War?

37. Make a list of six men who may be regarded as martyrs, and state why each of them deserved the title.

38. Give two separate meanings for each of the following words: nabob, factory, Indian, queen.

39. Write short accounts of: (a) Black Tom Tyrant, (b) Black Hole, (c) Black Book,

40. Compare the ships of the Tudor period (a) in the Mediterranean and the Atlantic, (b) warships and trading ships, (c) Spanish and English.

41. The following words were applied to certain persons. Who were they, and why were they so called?

Bloody, bluff, bobbing, bonnie, damned, diamond, silken.

42. Write a life of Philip II, King of Spain. (*Use the Index in answering this question.*)

43. Write a life of Louis XIV, King of France. (*Use the Index in answering this question.*)

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